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ABSTRACT

Intended for practitioners and graduate students in reading education and educational administration, this guide presents theory, research, and practice that will help prospective and working administrators and supervisors to conceptualize better ways of helping children learn to read and want to read. Chapter One, "The Need for Reading Leadership," discusses a school-based improvement process, the varied roles of educational leaders, and the importance of supervisors who are knowledgeable in the reading field. Chapter Two, "Hiring Qualified Reading Teachers," focuses on considering a variety of approaches to assure that the schools recruit the best reading teachers. Chapter Three, "Success in Literacy through Early Intervention," suggests a number of strategies to help young children develop a foundation for success in literacy. In Chapter Four, "Administrators Can Support a Better Link between the Learning Center and the Classroom," the focus is on curricular congruence. Chapter Five, "Computer Applications as a Schoolwide Innovation: Focusing on Cooperative Leadership," highlights the cooperative strategies used by administrators and teachers, while focusing on computer application. In Chapter Six, "New Perspectives on Reading Instruction," recent insights concerning reading instruction are presented. Chapter Seven, "Reading Comprehension Myths: Administrators Beware," stresses the importance of dispelling reading comprehension myths. The last three chapters focus on independent reading and cover a variety of areas, including schoolwide efforts for recreational reading, uses of free reading for at-risk children, and strategies for sustaining independent reading. Appendixes include an annotated bibliography on reading leadership, a description of periodicals for reading leaders, and guidelines for improving reading lessons. (MG)

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READING LEADERSHIP: STRATEGIES FOR ADMINISTRATORS, SUPERVISORS, AND CONSULTANTS

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Preface

This book is intended for graduate students in reading education and in educational administration as well as for practitioners in the field. From our experiences, we believe that both graduate students and practitioners can benefit from updated insights concerning the reading process and reading instruction. Throughout this book, theory, research, and practice are presented in a feasible context that will help prospective and working administrators and supervisors to conceptualize better ways of helping children learn to read and want to read.

In Chapter 1, "The Need for Reading Leadership," we discuss a school-based improvement process, a review of studies concerning effective reading programs, the varied roles and job descriptions of educational leaders, and the importance of administrators and supervisors being knowledgeable in the reading field.

"Hiring Qualified Reading Teachers" is the second chapter, and it focuses on reading leaders considering a variety of approaches to assure that the best reading teachers are placed in schools. One of our recommendations is to be certain that prospective reading teachers possess the competencies established by the Professional Standards and Ethics Committee of the International Reading Association. We also suggest that candidates possess personal qualifications and knowledge of reading. Finally, we highlight the roles of a reading advisory committee in helping to appoint the best reading teachers.

The need for early intervention is stressed in Chapter 3. We suggest a number of strategies that will help young children develop a foundation for success in literacy. Among the areas we discuss are the preschool environment, emerging literacy, whole language, prior knowledge, and evaluation.

In Chapter 4, "Administrators Can Support a Better Link between the Learning Center and the Classroom," we focus on curricular congruence. After describing curricular congruence, we discuss its application to a Long Island school district where we serve as consultants. We also present several benefits and a checklist, and we end the chapter with a personal comment.

"Computer Applications as a Schoolwide Innovation: Focusing on Cooperative Leadership" is the fifth chapter. It provides a detailed description of a timely innovation that we have supported. While focusing on computer applications, we highlight the cooperative strategies used by administrators and teachers. The general sense of this chapter is that similar strategies could be applied not only to efforts for computer applications but also to other timely innovations.

In Chapter 6, we present recent insights concerning reading instruction. After presenting potentially difficult terms and their related meanings, we discuss whole language, prior knowledge, writing and reading links, and metacognition.

The importance of dispelling reading comprehension myths is stressed in Chapter 7. We present six myths still being perpetuated in schools, and we provide information that can help administrators and teachers avoid such misconceptions when carrying out practices to improve students' understanding of text.

The last three chapters focus on independent reading. We cover a variety of important areas including schoolwide efforts for recreational reading, uses of free reading for at-risk children, and strategies for sustaining independent reading.

In the Appendices, we provide an annotated bibliography on reading leadership, a description of periodicals for reading leaders, and other useful items.

Overall, this book does not purport to cover all areas related to reading leadership. We believe, however, that the ideas we present will serve as a complement to graduate students and practitioners as they pursue the goal of helping students improve their performance in reading as well as their desire to read.

Chapter 1

The Need for Reading Leadership

School-Based Improvement Process

Specific Support for Reading Leadership

Another Review of the Literature Concerning Leadership and the School Reading Program

Roles and Job Descriptions

Demonstrating Credible Reading Leadership Requires Knowledge of the Reading Field

References

The Need for Reading Leadership

The success of reading programs is dependent on many factors, including effective instructional leadership. Principals and supervisors who engage in a variety of essential roles can improve school environments and simultaneously upgrade reading programs. Positive reading leadership is especially important because a reading-oriented school increases students' chances of being successful in most curricular areas.

Caldwell and Wood (1988) propose a school-based improvement process, and they focus on the supportive roles of school board members, central office personnel, principals, teachers, and staff development personnel. Interestingly, the principals are expected to:

- ensure the positive climate necessary for gaining commitment to school improvement decisions;
- involve their staffs and those clientele served by the school in developing goals and program plans for improvement;
- ensure that staff development programs designed for their staffs are related to their school improvement goals;
- participate in staff development with their faculties;
- ensure that the design of the school improvement plan addresses the major educational problems in their schools;
- implement and evaluate school instructional improvement with their planning teams (p. 53).

Although these roles are intended for improving school settings in general, they have obvious value for supporting reading instruction in particular.

Specific support for reading leadership is provided by Hoffman and Rutherford (1984), who review some of the major studies concerning effective reading programs. These studies focus on schools that have potential for failure but actually have been successful in terms of high student achievement. While this research reflects both strengths and shortcomings, it provides a clear sense of direction for administrative leadership in the reading program. According to Hoffman and Rutherford (p. 88), "If there is a single factor which approaches the status of 'necessary' condition in effective programs it is the force of an instructional leader." This leader can be the building principal with expertise in reading or the administrator working cooperatively with a reading teacher. The effective leadership behaviors include:

A. setting specific goals for student achievement;

B. possessing extensive knowledge about reading instruction and using this knowledge to help implement an innovative program;

C. being actively involved in decisions concerning the program and motivating individual initiative and a variety of ideas from the staff;

D. monitoring student progress on a continuous basis;

E. observing and evaluating classroom instruction and providing teachers with continuous feedback.

In another review of the literature concerning leadership and the school reading program, Laffey (1980) focuses on aspects of administrators' knowledge of reading, their leadership practices, their impact on reading program development and student reading achievement, their ability to promote change, their role in public relations, and their responsibility as an instructional leader. Laffey concludes (p. 634):

> Taking research findings together with suggested practices indicates that elementary school principals need to be 'all things to all people,' filling many different roles. Among other things, the principal needs to establish reading as a priority in the academic curriculum; to act as the key change agent in adopting new programs (insuring adequate resources and materials, providing inservice training, and judiciously supporting experimentation); to act as a constructive evaluator; and to present the reading program in a favorable light to the community at large.

These and other roles are generally carried out by different individuals, depending on the school districts in which they work and the job descriptions they are expected to follow. For example, in one district, a language arts supervisor may have elementary and secondary school responsibilities and therefore may be expected to work cooperatively with the building principal in all language arts activities. Conversely, in another school system, the elementary school principal may be totally responsible for all activities and outcomes related to reading, writing, oral language development, etc. Since leadership roles either overlap or are distinctive, we have decided not to define these roles in a sacrosanct fashion. Instead, we have written a book that provides as much useful information as we possess that can be adopted or adapted by administrators and supervisors in their particular school districts. The reader should be aware that we use the following terms interchangeably: administrator, building principal, supervisor, coordinator, educational leader, and reading leader.

One bias that we hold, however, is that to demonstrate reading leadership with credibility, the individual must be knowledgeable in the leadership roles, practices, strategies, etc. of the reading field. (Harris, 1976; Rauch, 1974; Rauch and Sanacore, 1984; Sanacore, 1979) Although knowledge by itself is no guarantee that the administrator will be an effective reading leader, it suggests that he/she is committed to reading instruction and has the potential to be a major source of support. (Sanacore, 1982) The effective reading leader should therefore attend conventions, conferences, and workshops and read books, monographs, and journal articles. The background of knowledge gained from these sources provides the foundation for substantive reading leadership. This book represents only one step toward achieving such leadership.

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Chapter 2

Hiring Qualified Reading Teachers

Knowledge of Reading

What Kind of Person?

Interviewing

Summary

References

Hiring Qualified Reading Teachers

The talents of qualified reading teachers can mean the difference between average and dynamic improvement in a reading program. Appointing qualified specialists, however, is a complex task. Administrators must therefore consider a variety of approaches to assure that the best reading teachers are placed in schools (Sanacore, 1979).

One way of assuring that qualified individuals are appointed is to be certain that they possess the competencies established by the Professional Standards and Ethics Committee of the International Reading Association (1986). According to the Committee, reading specialists may function in a variety of roles including diagnostic-remedial specialist, developmental reading-study skills specialist, reading consultant/reading resource teacher, reading coordinator / supervisor, and reading professor. The Committee also suggests knowledge areas and competencies for reading professionals, and they include linguistic and cognitive bases for reading, comprehension, word identification and vocabulary, appreciation and enjoyment, diagnostic teaching, and continuing program maintenance planning and improvement.

These standards serve as initial guides for hiring reading personnel, but additional criteria should also be considered. Rauch (1969 p. 48) suggests that candidates not only be thoroughy prepared in the teaching of their specialty but also "possess those priceless intangibles that cannot be measured by standardized tests: insight, understanding, clarity, patience, and responsibility." Rauch discusses insight and understanding as being among the most important qualities of effective educators. He also summarizes Highet's (1950, pp. 280-81) key characteristics of successful teachers: "Clarity: whatever you are teaching, make it clear. Make it as firm as stone and as bright as sunlight--Patience: anything worth learning takes time to learn and time to teach--Responsibility: it is a serious thing to interfere with another man's life. It is hard enough to guide one's own. Yet people are easily influenced for good or evil particularly when they are young or when their teacher speaks with authority."

In addition to these priceless intangibles, Rauch discusses Harris' thesis (1961, p 280) concerning a real liking for children. "The liking must be genuine--children quickly detect the difference between a warm, friendly person and one who puts on a show of friendliness without really feeling that way. Appearance, dress, age, speech, theoretical knowledge, experience--all these are less important than a genuine fondness for children as they are, complete with their faults and annoying habits."

Smith, Otto and Hansen (1978) also believe that personal qualifications of reading specialists are essential for effective functioning. Among these qualifications are patience, the ability "to accept defeat and not be defeated," and the ability to empathize with people. Patience is placed in the context of the time-consuming, complex processes of teaching concepts and modifying behaviors. For example, specialists must realize that it takes time to guide teachers in the grouping of students and in assessing programs, and time to change attitudes about test scores. Reading pesonnel should also be able to accept some resistance to their efforts, and they should not feel personally shattered because certain goals are not attained. Finally, they must be objective when necessary, since their functioning is closely tied to personal involements that are emotionally and physically draining.

Knowledge of Reading

In addition to personal characteristics, prospective reading specialists should demonstrate a knowledge of reading reflecting not only experiences in past graduate courses but also insights gained from current professional reading. An avid reader of texts, monographs, journals, and books will have the information needed to improve instructional programs. Although "book knowledge" by itself does not guarantee the success of a reading teacher, it does support his or her potential as a major source of support in language arts.

Unfortunately, educators as a group do not seem to be avid readers of professional literature. Our experiences as well as research in the field suggest that both elementary school teachers (Duffey, 1973) and secondary school teachers (Hipple & Giblin, 1971) do a limited amount of professional reading. Odland and

and Ilstrup (1963) and Hawkins (1967) noted that college students, including those who were planning to be teachers, seem to lack sophistication in their recreational and professional reading habits. Interestingly, although these studies were conducted several decades ago, we continue to survey practioners and graduate students concerning their reading habits. The general scenario suggests that as a group, these respondents will read professional literature only when it is required in college courses; however, upon completing their required courses, they tend to significantly decrease their reading of journals, monographs, and texts. Their reasons for decreased reading vary, including they do not have time to read professional literature, they consider the published material to be boring, and they believe the resources do not relate well to practice (Sanacore, 1990).

These findings are discouraging, but they should not be used as an excuse for hiring reading personnel who are not well-read and up-to-date. Think about the absurdity of appointing a reading teacher who is a reluctant reader! When interviewing candidates for reading positions, interviewers should consider a variety of factors including positive reading habits and commitment to professional and personal growth.

What Kind of Person?

Hiring qualified reading personnel is so complex that it may require a reading advisory committee. The committee members should consist of administrators, experienced teachers, specialists, and (sometimes) students. The first step is to develop a survey to determine the professional staff's perceptions of the position(s) to be filled and the staff's preferences for the roles to be performed. The survey should encompass items that pertain to a variety of roles, including helping teachers to improve reading and writing instruction in the content areas, implementing inservice workshops in language arts, and involving parents as partners in their children's education.

Hesse and Smith (1973, pp. 211-13) present an extensive instrument with 42 items. Although the instrument is designed for secondary school staffs, it can be adapted to elementary school settings. Staff members indicate the degree of importance of specific roles, such as: "set up and operate a study skills center where students can get individual help with their reading assignments"; and "plan and supervise an attractive area loaded with paperback books where students can come and read for pleasure." Educational leaders can also work with their faculties to develop a local instrument.

Feedback is then analyzed and priorities established. The next task is to write a job description that reflects the staff's requirements. The roles and responsibilities should be clearly defined (Rauch, 1974) and flexibly stated (Sanacore , 1977). They should also allow for some of the preferences and characteristics of the person who is hired (Smith, Otto, & Hansen, 1978).

Interviewing

Advisory committee members (especially experienced teachers) should be included on the interview team (Smith, Otto, & Hansen, 1978). Reviewing the candidates' resumes beforehand increases the team's awareness of those who have substantive backgrounds in graduate work and professional experiences; it also helps in selecting individuals to be interviewed. Before an interview, team members may want to plan questions or activities that will elicit information about a candidate's personal and professional reading habits, insightfulness, etc. During interviews, a knowledge of candidates' backgrounds eliminates the need to ask routine, time-consuming questions about their knowledge of reading. Rather, specific questions can be posed to determine the extent to which applicants can apply their knowledge to local problems and priorities. For example, if a school needs a content area reading/writing program, applicants should describe pragmatic approaches to meeting this need. In-depth responses should reflect ability to propose short-term and long-term goals concerning such areas as instructional materials, flexible grouping strategies, classroom methodologies, appropriate expectations, and evaluative procedures. Candidates should also be able to apply insights gained from journal articles and other professional readings. Finally, after an interview, members of the interview team can complete a checklist on various characteristics (warmth, insight, knowledge, etc.)

One of the most important aspects of the hiring process is to visit the school system in which the candidates are currently employed and to observe their accomplishments firsthand. If the candidates are currently serving as building reading/resource teachers, then members of the interview team may randomly select colleagues and students to discuss the candidates' efforts in dealing with people, curricula, teaching, staff development, and other pertinent areas. In addition, the interview team should observe specific outcomes associated with the candidates' efforts (especially teaching performance) to improve the language arts context. These effective recruitment techniques focus on experienced members of the interview team interviewing candiates and observing their accomplishments in their own setting. According to Wise, Darling-Hammond, & Berry (1988, p.84):

> ...school districts should maximize the participation of experienced teachers in all phases of the selection process. Significant teacher input permits a more thorough scrutiny of a candidate's teaching philosophy and teaching competence. Teacher input also increases the validity of the selection process since local practitioners understand fully the demands and responsibilities associated with a particular vacancy. Finally, involving veteran teachers in selection heightens the investment they feel in the success of their

new colleagues, thus decreasing the isolation of,
and increasing the collegial supports available to,
the new teacher.

These considerations are obviously more reliable than some of the traditional recruitment techniques which rely too much on candidates'college transcripts, haphazard interviews, and personal letters of reference.

In sum, hiring the best reading personnel is a challenging task involving many factors. Educational leaders can be dynamic forces in guiding this essential process. Fulfilling standards established by the International Reading Association is an important initial criterion. The other professional and personal attributes discussed here, however, are also significant. (Admittedly, even perceptive observers may not be sure of an applicant's personal qualifications until he or she is hired and then observed in a variety of capacities.) The suggestions provided in this chapter do not guarantee but do increase the chances of appointing successful reading specialists who will serve in a number of roles, including teaching, supervising, and consulting as well as preventing, diagonosing, and remediating reading difficulties.

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Chapter 3

Success in Literacy through Early Intervention

Preschool: What Kind?

Emerging Literacy

Whole Language

Activating Prior Knowledge

What about Evaluation?

Summary

References

Success in Literacy through Early Intervention

During our professional careers, we have served public education in a variety of capacities, including elementary and secondary school teacher, K-12 language arts coordinator, and professor of reading, language, and cognition. From these experiences, we have become increasingly sensitive to the need for early intervention. Helping children gain an early sense of success in literacy is vital to their growth and development since it creates a foundation for future success and self-worth. Ideally, every positive action a preschool or primary school teacher takes is considered an early intervention that prevents subsequent problems from developing in children's lives.

Administrators and teachers need to be especially sensitive to this issue of prevention because learning difficulties demonstrated in children's early development could become major learning disabilities, if unattended. Compounding this problem are demographic trends causing disruptions in children's lives. A high divorce rate, more single parent households, and an increase in families with two working parents are only a few of the societal changes that have affected children's lifestyles. If these young children experience both academic and personal difficulties, they most likely will be unable to cope with this double "whammy." Consequently, they may begin the negative cycle of failing, of developing low self-esteem, and of disliking learning.

What educational leaders and teachers must do is stop this destructive cycle through preventive strategies. The following considerations are therefore supportive of early intervention. Although they are not comprehensive, they do reflect appropriate efforts for helping young children develop a foundation for success in literacy.

Preschool: What Kind?

The timing for preschool education is at its best. Large numbers of women continue to join the work force and thus are in greater need of having their young children supervised. Parents also are more aware of the benefits of preschool education and are attempting to select the most suitable environment for their children. Not surprisingly, the preschool market has been growing steadily with more nursery schools initiated today than at any other time in U. S. history. Such growth is both positive and negative since some of these preschools provide a developmentally appropriate environment while others emphasize paper-and-pencil tasks, isolated skill exercises, and other fragmented activities.

The best type of early intervention supports the concept of play as an important part of a young child's experience. Play is essential because it promotes children's social, affective, and cognitive growth (Leeper, Witherspoon, & Day, 1984; Scarr, Weinberg, & Levine, 1986). Through play, children express in natural ways their view of the world as they comfortably engage in a variety of activities, such as drawing, coloring, pretending, using manipulatives, listening and responding to interesting stories being read aloud, becoming actively involved in storytelling, and creating their own stories. These and other developmentally appropriate activities help children to better understand their world, to expand their oral language, to develop a better sense of story language and story structure, and to enjoy communication. As important, the children benefit from growing socially and emotionally with a community of peers. This type of environment needs flexible, humanistic administrators and teachers who value children's individual background of literacy experiences. For example, the teacher respects and is able to nurture children who already have taught themselves to read or who have experimented with writing (or scribbling) letters to parents and peers. Such valuing of what children can do encourages early success as it supports a philosophy of emerging literacy.

Emerging Literacy

When children enter elementary schools, they may experience traditional settings that focus on the use of reading readiness books, exposure to the alphabet in isolation, memorization of numbers in sequence, and, of course, preparation for readiness tests. In a recent study, Freeman and Hatch (1989) focused on kindergarten report cards used in Ohio public schools and their relation to developmental theory. From the results of their analysis, the researchers concluded that (1) kindergarteners are expected to achieve mastery in work habits and in math and reading readiness, (2) there is an emphasis on an academic kindergarten influenced by the behaviorist perspective rather than by the maturationist or interactionist one, and (3) the marking systems negatively evaluate the young children. Although these findings are limited to Ohio, the literature of the field suggests that similar approaches are dominating in other parts of the United States (Davis, 1980; Moyer, Egertson, & Isenberg, 1987; Smith & Shepard, 1987; Uphoff & Gilmore, 1986; Webster, 1984).

This trend toward external demands, however, is in direct conflict with children's developmental needs, which reflect a yearning for constructing meaning in natural contexts. In addition, as mentioned previously, young children already possess a growing repertoire of literacy knowledge that is used in making sense of their world. According to Clay (1989), five year olds entering school have literacy skills, but they vary significantly among individuals. In observing these children, Clay (1989, p.v) found:

> One child knew a great deal about books; another had explored writing. One was proud of being able to recognize all the family names; another could write most of the letters of the alphabet. Some had clusters

> of skills, and some had no experience in some of these areas. It was rare to find a child who did not have some literacy knowledge on entry to school.

Such observable behavior suggests that children have a natural zest for wanting to be literate and that literacy development is individual as well as continuous. This perspective negates the traditional view of readiness which implies that children reach a stage in development when they are suddenly able to write and read. Instead, literacy learning should be understood as a process that steadily builds on previous experiences. In a sense, emerging literacy keeps emerging (Clay, 1989).

Whole Language

Interestingly, a belief in emerging literacy sets the stage for a success-oriented whole language classroom. Although the whole language philosophy means many things to many people, most enthusiasts would agree that children learn best in natural environments and that educators should be aware of why they are doing what they are doing with children's literacy learning. Consequently, understanding the whole language philosophy is essential for applying it to the classroom context. In the previous chapter, we present Goodman's (1986) perspective on whole language; we urge educational leaders and teachers to read his book What's Whole in Whole Language. Here, we would like to describe several activities that support a whole language environment.

- Reading Aloud -- Reading to children is an excellent strategy for motivating them to read. Materials selected for reading aloud should be linked to learners' interests and experiences. These resources may be short works of children's literature to be read in their entirety or longer selections of which a section is read each day. Such activities nurture children's developing awareness of story structure (or story grammar). Reading aloud also expands children's awareness of the wide diversity of available literature and teases or motivates individuals to read similar literature on their own.
- Reading Authentic Literature -- Whether children are listening to authentic stories or are reading them independently, they benefit immensely from these activities. They realize, for example, that stories have interesting characters who live in different times and places, who encounter difficulties, who set goals, and who achieve success or failure. Frequently, children identify vicariously with the characters as a way of attempting to solve their own personal conflicts. As important, becoming involved in authentic literature increases children's potential for enjoying reading and for considering it as a lifetime

activity. Educational leaders and teachers should therefore encourage literature-based activities as a major complement to the instructional program.

- Encouraging Self-Selection -- Learners who select their own reading materials and who choose their own writing activities are more likely to gain a sense of ownership. To nurture this child-centered approach, administrators must support teachers in establishing mini-classroom libraries containing a wide variety of materials. Fiction and non-fiction materials as well as other resources should be readily available. Also essential is a writing corner with paper, pencils, crayons, pens, puppets, construction paper, and a writing "suggestion box." This type of classroom environment empowers children to take charge of their learning. Such empowerment, of course, requires the sensitivity of administrators and teachers who accept children's choices, miscues, and invented spellings as developmentally appropriate behaviors to be observed, studied, and encouraged. Supporting these behaviors is necessary for creating a risk-taking, success-oriented, whole-language classroom.

These approaches are not comprehensive, nor are they intended as isolated experiences for children. Instead, they are to be integrated with a wide variety of meaning - focused strategies and activities that genuinely benefit children's growth in literacy.

Activating Prior Knowledge

Another essential strategy for nurturing children's early success in literacy is to help them become aware of their prior knowledge and associate it with reading and writing. Fortunately, a number of worthwhile strategies are available (see previous chapter) for activating children's prior knowledge and for linking it to learning activities. For example, before engaging children in the reading or writing of a grandparent theme, the teacher might ask: "What do you think about when you hear the word grandparent?" Responses might include "takes me to the park," "lives in Florida," "plays with me," "reads to me," "happy," "blind," "sick," "Alzheimer's," "works," "takes care of me," and "dead." As the teacher places children's responses on the chalkboard, he/she stimulates class discussion, highlighting the importance of each child's contribution.

A more structured approach is to associate the children's discussion with a literacy map or web. Thus, responses to the grandparent theme might be linked as in Figure 1. A map or web helps children to better visualize the relationship of their responses to important categories and thus to better understand, retain, and apply pertinent prior knowledge.

From the class discussion or the more structured approach, children usually have more to bring to a related activity concerning writing, reading, or listening to a read-aloud session about a grandparent (or another topic or theme). The teacher may then select a variety of children's literature related to the thematic unit. For example, the following children's books support the grandparent theme:

Rose Blue's Grandma Didn't Wave Back
Ron Brooks' Timothy and Gramps
John Burningham's Grandpa
Tomie de Paola's Now One Foot, Now the Other
Norma Farber's How Does It Feel to Be Old?
Patricia MacLachlan's Through Grandpa's Eyes
Elaine Moore's At Grandmother's House
Helen Oxenbury's Grandma and Grandpa
Cynthia Rylant's Miss Maggie
Ruth Sonneborn's I Love Gram
Charlotte Zolotow's My Grandson Lew

These and other materials are enjoyed more thoroughly when children's prior knowledge is activated and associated with the materials. This approach also supports the predictive ability and the growing fluency of these developing readers and writers. With such a successful foundation, children are more likely to continue their zest for using and appreciating language.

What about Evaluation?

As teachers continue to nurture children's literacy learning in a naturalistic context, the issue of evaluation inevitably surfaces. Typically, many school districts in the United States administer readiness testing in kindergarten and other standardized testing throughout the primary grades. This type of assessment reflects a subskill orientation which is dichotomous to a natural learning environment. Such an overt mismatch of learning and evaluation frustrates children and provides inadequate information concerning their prior knowledge, their comprehension of complete stories, their authentic writing, their love of language, and other growth patterns.

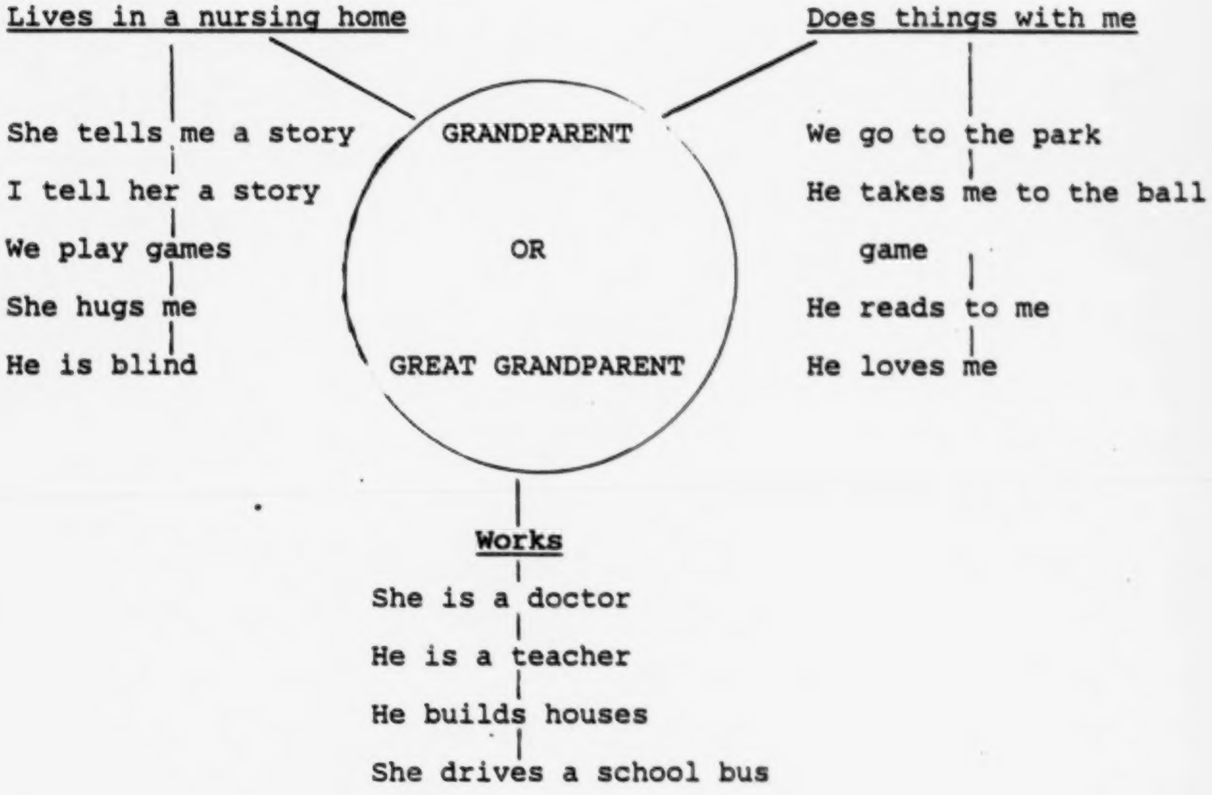
A better approach to evaluation is to eliminate all standardized testing from, at least, kindergarten to third grade and to replace it with ongoing kidwatching strategies (Marek, Howard, et al., 1984; Goodman, 1989). Kidwatching involves observing, interacting with, and analyzing children's behavior during writing, reading, listening, speaking, art, drama, and other language-oriented activities. The important consideration here is that kidwatching is a continuous process of evaluating children's growth while teaching and learning are occurring; it is different from typical standardized testing which takes place once a year and which does not consider the daily dynamics and frustrations of teaching and learning.

Observing involves viewing children's performance from a distance. The classroom teacher may decide to observe a student working individually, a child working in a group, the whole group working together, or the entire class; the purpose of observing is to determine use of language, leadership, problem solving, and collaborative abilities. Interacting involves conferencing, participating in small-group and whole-class discussions, posing pertinent questions, and reacting to students' journal entries; the purpose of interacting is to determine students' current knowledge and to stimulate their thinking beyond this current state of thought. Analyzing involves in-depth approaches, such as miscue analysis (Goodman, Watson, & Burke, 1987) and careful attention to spelling development (Read, 1971); the purpose of analyzing is to consider linguistic insights while determining children's knowledge of language and their development in language use. According to Goodman (1989, p. 8), in most cases, these three types of evaluation are overlapping and integrated. "They are strong evaluation tools, especially when they are used in concert. Each can help confirm the information gained from the use of the others." Administrators and teachers should consider these approaches to evaluation because they focus on what children can do during literacy learning and they provide better instructional direction than does standardized testing.

Summary

Helping children to achieve success in literacy is easier to discuss than to carry out. Common sense, however, supports a thrust toward early intervention. Considering today's problematic society, children are in greater need of school-related help, especially at the preschool and primary school levels. Providing the right kind of preschool experience and demonstrating more sensitivity to emerging literacy, whole language, prior knowledge, and informal evaluation are steps in the right direction. These approaches, of course, are not new, nor are they intended as a panacea. They simply attempt to provide a developmentally appropriate foundation for helping children to be successful during their school careers and throughout their lives.

Figure 1: Structuring Information from Class Talk



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Chapter 4

Administrators Can Support a Better Link between the Learning Center and the Classroom

A Better Link

Benefits

Curricular Congruence: A Checklist

A Personal Comment

Summary

References

Administrators Can Support a Better Link between the Learning Center and the Classroom

In school districts throughout the United States, problem learners are receiving remedial instruction in learning centers. Because these settings are outside of content-area classrooms, they risk providing activities that are fragmented and isolated. Students are more likely to complete workbook exercises and microcomputer activities that do not adequately support subject-area expectations. This separation of learning center and classroom also pressures students into quantity of learning; for example, one environment may stress specific words, concepts, and study skills, while the other setting may emphasize different content and strategies. Such quantity and diversity are a poor match for less-able students who need instruction that is carefully planned and mutually supported in both remedial and regular programs. (Allington, Boxer, and Broikou, 1987; Allington and Shake, 1986; Allington, Stuetzel, Shake, and Lamarche, 1986; Johnston, Allington, Afflerbach, 1985; Sanacore, 1988).

A Better Link

Sometimes referred to as curricular congruence, learning center teachers need administrative support in providing remedial students with the content and strategies for achieving success in subject-matter classrooms (see Figure 1). A Long Island school district where we serve as consultants has initiated such an approach.

Briefly described, problem learners receive English instruction seven periods each week. Twice a week, most of the students remain for a double period, while at-risk learners attend the learning center for instructional experiences that support the English program.

For example, during several visitations to the learning center, we observed a small group of students reading and interpreting Paul Zindel's The Pigman. This book was chosen because it related well to the thematic structure of the literature program, and because it was being used in the regular classroom. The remedial teacher selected from the book similar vocabulary and concepts highlighted in the English classroom, and she engaged the students in an active discussion. Included in this activity was semantic mapping which guided the students to organize pertinent information within categories. This strategy also helped individuals to build and activate their prior knowledge and thus to read The Pigman with more fluency and comprehension. Supporting semantic mapping was a variation of Stauffer's (1969) Directed Reading Thinking Activity in which the teacher motivated learners to make their own predictions and to write them on the chalkboard. According to Richek (1987),

> This helps to dignify the students' predictions and provides a record of their thoughts. The few minutes needed to record each student's prediction (with his or her name) are well worth the effort (p. 634).

Making predictions impressed upon students the importance of being active thinkers when reading text. Throughout these small-group lessons, the remedial teacher carefully supported the content of the English classroom by first providing essential structure, then guiding students to apply the newly gained insights and strategies, and finally allowing individuals to practice on their own. The long-term goal of the remedial and classroom teachers is to help the students develop independence in the English classroom. Realistically, the teachers are aware that this goal may take years to fulfill.

The success of this link between the learning center and English classroom is largely the result of mutual planning time that the building administrator "built into" the teachers' schedules. English teachers are assigned weekly to twenty-four teaching periods and one mutual planning period with learning center staff (see Figure 2). During the planning session, the classroom and remedial teachers organize instruction that is congruent in both settings. To assure such congruence on a consistent basis, they also reflect on previous instruction and ask: "a) Was the same or similar type of instructional material employed in both settings? b) Was the same reading skill taught in both settings? c) Was the same reading strategy taught in both settings?" (Allington, Stuetzel, Shake and Lamarche, 1986, p. 19)

Benefits

The seven-period structure and its link to the learning center provide a variety of benefits, some of which are worth mentioning:

1. remedial learners spend more engaged time on

activities that directly support success in the English program;

2. such support increases transfer of learning while it lessens fragmented exercises;
3. the teaching-learning commitment is long-term, offering remedial students the opportunity to attend the learning center up to four years;
4. teacher morale has been positive because the seven-period program has increased staffing during a stressful time of declining student enrollment and related teacher excessing.

Curricular Congruence: A Checklist

Interestingly, curricular congruence is not expensive to implement, provided the school already has a learning center with remedial personnel and appropriate resources. (Of course, if the seven-period structure is carried out, additional funding is needed for hiring classroom teachers.) The major source of support that remedial and classroom teachers need is inservice education. Our experiences suggest that full-day workshops (with release time provided by substitute teachers) are productive formats for staff development. During the sessions, the participants should be exposed to specific ways in which the learning center and the classroom can support pertinent goals, content, strategies, and skills. The following checklist concerning curricular congruence may serve as a basic guide for areas to consider during inservice workshops, or it may be useful as a listing of reminders to consult during the school year.

Although the checklist is not comprehensive, the items are gleaned from the literature of the field, especially from the research findings of Allington, Stuetzel, Shake, and Lamarche (1986).

1. The same or similar instructional resources are used in both settings. (Here, resources include basal readers, materials containing skills that are easily transferable, and workbooks with paragraphs and longer passages emphasizing comprehension)
2. The same reading skills are stressed in both environments
3. The same reading strategies are emphasized in both locations
4. Substantial time in the learning center and the classroom is used for either direct instruction or teacher-directed silent reading of connected discourse with a comprehension focus
5. Learning center and classroom activities are organized in such a fashion that remedial services supplement rather than supplant the basic curriculum (Here, the seven-period structure and its link to the learning center are especially worthwhile)
6. The remedial and classroom teachers have a clear, updated understanding of the instructional emphases in both settings (If administrators are unable to schedule teachers for mutual planning and articulation, then they arrange specific meetings for such important activities. In addition, administrators encourage remedial and classroom teachers to observe each other during instructional activities)

These guidelines may appear didactic, but they are actually intended as a general thrust. Educational leaders should work cooperatively and flexibly with learning center and classroom teachers to develop the best approaches for a particular school. (An adapted version of these guidelines is provided in our chapter "Helping At-Risk Readers Achieve Fluency and Independence.")

A Personal Comment

Although the Long Island high school discussed above represents a success story, we also visited or served as consultants to other school districts for a variety of reasons. Unfortunately, if the reason concerned associations with the learning center and classroom, a negative scenario usually evolved. For example, in the vast majority of these schools, minimal congruence existed, and the causes for this lack of structure were varied. In some schools, the administrators and teachers did not believe in a philosophy of congruence. They felt that remedial learners' past failures were the result of conventional classroom instruction that was poorly matched with these students' needs; therefore, to continue with a similar focus would probably lead to ongoing failures. In other schools, educators indicated that linking the learning center and classroom was extremely difficult because of problems with scheduling students for both settings, organizing instruction for both locations, and providing mutual planning for both remedial and regular staff. Classroom teachers also openly admitted their perceptions that when students attended the learning center they became the exclusive responsibility of the remedial teacher.

Although some of these reactions were genuinely intended, we strongly believe that curricular congruence could have been carried out more effectively if the educators with whom we met had been truly committed to the concept. Often, remedial teachers revealed that their principals expected them to serve as quasi-administrators by making daily public address announcements, by performing clerical tasks, and by meeting with irate parents for matters unrelated to language arts. Not suprisingly, certain reading teachers who claimed to be the busiest admitted that they did not commence learning center instruction until mid-October and that they concluded instruction in mid-May. The reasons for such a short school year in the learning center concerned pre-assessment, post-assessment, and materials inventory. Consequently, this negative scenario suggests that in most of these schools remedial and classroom teachers have coordinated instruction in a less-than-desirable fashion, while in particular schools children have not even received fragmented remedial instruction for a substantial period of time.

These tentative conclusions are based on informal observations of remedial efforts in a small number of urban, rural, and suburban school districts. We therefore are not generalizing these conclusions. Aspects of this scenario, however, combined with research findings (Allington, Stuetzel, Shake, and Lamarche, 1986; Johnston, Allington, Afflerbach, 1985) reveal a less-than-optimal picture of what may be happening in other remedial reading programs and suggest better efforts are needed to coordinate remedial and classroom instruction.

Summary

Creating a closer link between the learning center and the classroom makes sense, and administrators and supervisors are vital resources for supporting this important link. Because every school is unique, educational leaders and teachers should be flexible in making decisions about strategies, skills, materials, mutual planning, transfer of learning, and other pertinent factors. Although curricular congruence is not the only means of remedying the problems of remedials learners, it is a contributing aspect of attaining this goal.

Figure 1

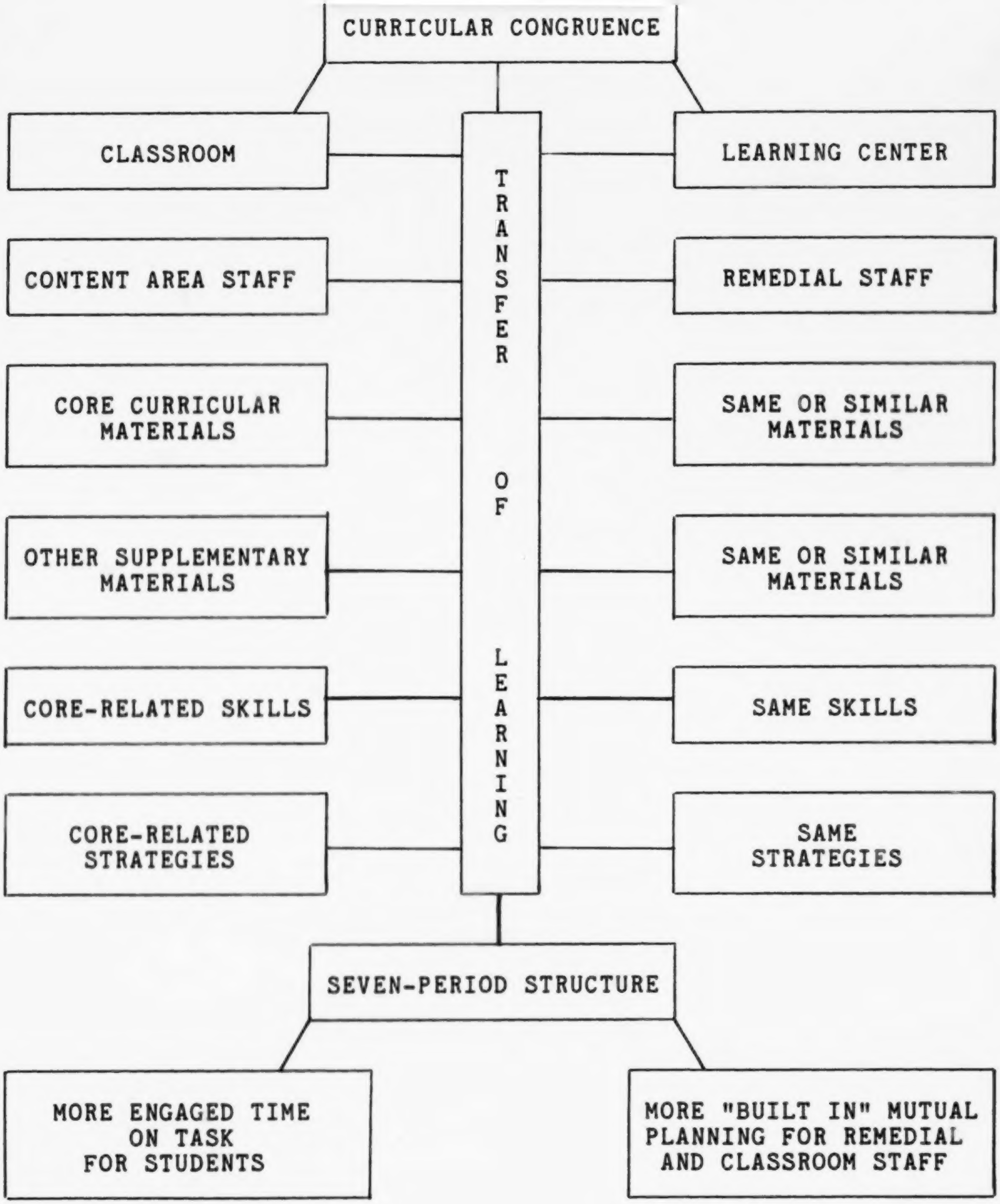
CURRICULAR CONGRUENCE
CLASSROOM
LEARNING CENTER
TRANSFER OF LEARNING
CONTENT AREA STAFF
REMEDIAL STAFF
CORE CURRICULAR MATERIALS
SAME OR SIMILAR MATERIALS
OTHER SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS
SAME OR SIMILAR MATERIALS
CORE-RELATED SKILLS
SAME SKILLS
CORE-RELATED STRATEGIES
SAME STRATEGIES
SEVEN-PERIOD STRUCTURE
MORE ENGAGED TIME ON TASK FOR STUDENTS
MORE "BUILT IN" MUTUAL PLANNING FOR REMEDIAL AND CLASSROOM STAFF

Figure 2

An English Teacher's Schedule

Reflecting Mutual Planning with Learning Center Staff*

	Period 1	Period 2	Period 3	Period 4	Period 5	Period 6	Period 7	Period 8
M	English 10	English 10 Double Period	English 10	Preparation	Lunch	Public Speaking	Writing for T.V.	Duty
T		Preparation		English 10 Double Period				
W		English 10 Double Period		Preparation				
TH		Preparation		English 10 Double Period				
F		*Remedial and Classroom Teachers Meet for Mutual Planning		Preparation				

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Chapter 5*

Computer Applications as a Schoolwide Innovation: Focusing on Cooperative Leadership

An Evolving Concept

The Computer Laboratory

Benefits

Summary

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*Authors' Note: We acknowledge the support of English/computer teacher Al Alio for providing valuable and practical insights concerning the use of computers in a middle school setting.

Computer Applications as a Schoolwide Innovation: Focusing on Cooperative Leadership

In our chapter "Future Directions: Developing Lifetime Literacy through Independent Reading in the Schools," we discuss strategies for promoting and sustaining a language arts innovation. In this chapter, we would like to focus on computer applications as another timely innovation that we have supported. Although the activities we describe are not exclusively language arts oriented, they nonetheless demonstrate the involvement of language arts teachers with the world of technology. The reader of this chapter should focus on the cooperative roles of administrators, supervisors, and teachers and should consider adapting these roles when implementing a variety of innovations.

The Hauppauge Middle School is located on Long Island, New York, and is part of a comprehensive, suburban school district. What follows is a description of the Middle School English Department's efforts which led to the successful implementation of a schoolwide innovation concerning computer applications.

Initially, the language arts coordinator and the building principal met often to discuss the potential for carrying out computer applications activities. They considered the changing technological world in which we live and the need to prepare students for these changes. They discussed links between the humanities and technology rather than generate an erroneous sense of computer applications only fitting into the mathematics domain. They also considered the English staff for this innovation because of their reputation of being flexible, innovative, and growth-oriented. Finally, they agreed that before putting the cart before the horse, they should have exploratory meetings with the English staff.

An Evolving Concept

During several department meetings, the staff seemed genuinely interested in the innovation but voiced a variety of concerns. To what extent will computer applications support children's growth as learners? Will the teachers receive in-service education? Are there opportunities for curriculum development? Will laboratory or teaching assistants be available? Does the district plan to provide financial support for these efforts? These and other realistic concerns established a basis for immediate direction.

One English teacher who already had completed 15 graduate credits in computer science volunteered to serve as a mentor for the staff. Another teacher who was a building representative for the teacher association indicated that added sections of computer applications could benefit children while they maintain teaching positions during a difficult time of declining student enrollment and its related teacher excessing. She further indicated that the teacher association would enthusiastically support the innovation. Others said they would be willing to explore potential courses at local universities, at the Board of Cooperative Educational Services (BOCES), and at the Suffolk County Organization for the Promotion of Education (SCOPE). The language arts coordinator and the building principal promised to meet with the central office staff to secure a thorough commitment to the innovation.

During these central office meetings, charismatic discussions focused on how children would benefit from exposure to computers. Fortunately, the assistant superintendent for instruction was a long-term proponent of computer education, and several members of the board of education were executives for companies that used computers extensively. Consequently, those who were in major decision-making positions believed that children would derive essential benefits from computer experiences.

This foundation set the stage for a specific commitment to the innovation. For example, the central office staff agreed to provide a budget line item that would secure microcomputers and related software and that would be protected against future cuts. Other aspects of the commitment included not excessing members of the teaching staff (regardless of declining student enrollment) so that sufficient personnel are available to teach the computer applications sections. The central office staff also agreed to provide facilities suitable for a computer laboratory setting. Finally, the assistant superintendent for instruction supported comprehensive inservice education and curriculum development.

The inservice and curriculum activities were continuous. The English staff attended graduate courses and conferences offered at local universities. They also participated in workshops designed to promote hands-on awareness of microcomputers. Another important aspect of staff development was the school district's commitment to full-day sessions for the staff. Substitute teachers replaced English teachers in the classroom while the English staff attended these worthwhile sessions. The teacher who had a substantial background in computer science conducted many of the workshops. He provided practical experiences and associated these experiences with appropriate theory and research. In addition to the full-day sessions, he conducted curriculum development workshops for which he and the staff were remunerated. The scope of these workshops ranged from a review of keyboarding which is introduced in the elementary schools to a thorough grasp of different menus to an awareness of word processing.

These efforts demonstrated their actual worth during their application to the classroom. Interestingly, as classroom experiences nurtured children's growth, they also continued to support inservice education and curriculum development. In this context, the teacher who led the workshops served as a mentor to other staff members who were assigned to only four teaching periods rather than the typical five. Thus, during one instructional period each day for an entire school year, the English teachers visited the mentor's classroom/computer laboratory and became involved with the microcomputers. They also worked cooperatively with his lab assistant who provided detailed support. During the first ten-week progress period, the teachers observed their mentor. For the next twenty weeks, they were gradually weaned from making daily observations to providing assistance with instructional lessons and units. By the last progress period, the staff demonstrated how much they gained from the mentor by functioning independently with computer applications. At the conclusion of the school year, the English teachers returned to a paid summer workshop to refine their knowledge and to update the previously developed curriculum.

The Computer Laboratory

This comprehensive commitment to the teachers' professional development sent a positive message to the faculty, administration, parents, and children. It also provided a sound foundation for the innovation to be a success. Currently, all of the English teachers are assigned to four English sections and one computer applications section, except for the mentor who is assigned to two English classes, two computer applications classes, and a daily schedule as a mentor. He also is exempt from a conventional duty assignment and instead provides additional support to the staff. The computer applications sections provide all students with worthwhile exposure for ten weeks of the school year, while these students simultaneously attend English classes for forty weeks.

When the children enter the computer laboratories, they are assigned to one of twenty-four Apple 11 GS computers. Each series of four computers is linked to an Imagewriter 11 printer by means of an a/b/c/d switch. This switch allows any of the four computers, one at a time, to gain access to the printer. The computers are located on computer tables which line the perimeter of the room in a horseshoe configuration. The center of the room contains twenty-four student desks for the purpose of lecture type presentations that are necessary from time to time. The computer laboratories are used nine periods a day for group instruction and for a forty-minute period before school each day.

Some of the primary goals of the applications course are to teach children in grades seven and eight the current methods of word processing, to develop their skills with the data base, and to keep students up to date with regard to the role of computers in their world and society at large. To achieve this, a ten-week computer applications program is offered to seventh and eighth grade students.

The seventh grade program has four primary components. First, the students are given detailed instruction on how to properly function in the environment of the computer lab. They are taught to properly care for and handle the floppy disks. They are also instructed on the correct use of the computer and its peripherals. Then, the students are given a concise introduction of computer systems in general. They learn about the various types of computer systems available beginning with the massive main frame computer, ending with the home or microcomputer used in the lab. They are briefly told how and where these systems are used. After this brief introduction, the students move on to learning specifics about the apple keyboard. Students are now ready to proceed to a basic keyboarding program.

The keyboarding program is called Microtype, The Wonderful World of PAWS. This program is a sequence of sixteen consecutive lessons which comprise the second component of the ten-week applications course. The PAWS program allows the student to evaluate his/her progress after each lesson. The child develops a workable knowledge of the keyboard after completion of the program. At the end of each lesson, the student is given a lesson code which supplies the computer instructor with a coded report on the student's progress. The code gives the instructor the lesson number the student is working on, how often lines were repeated due to some deficiency, and what is recommended as a next step for the student. Each child's report is printed and turned in to the lab assistant at the end of each lesson. The assistant sorts the coded results and informs the teacher if any further drill work is needed for particular students. This program gives students the familiarity with the Apple keyboard that is necessary for them to continue on to the word processing segment of the course.

Students having developed a more than adequate level of keyboard proficiency eagerly begin learning about word processing with a well-founded confidence in their keyboarding skills. Scholastic's PFS:WRITE program is the third component of the course, and it is used to teach the word processing segment. Sometime during the fourth week, the student begins to learn about what word processing is and how to use it.

One of the first things a child encounters is the functions on the main menu. These functions include the following selections:

TYPE EDIT
DEFINE PAGE
PRINT
GET/SAVE/REMOVE
CLEAR
EXIT

Once the students are aware of the menu terms, the class initially proceeds to use each of the functions. The first and major function of the word processing program is, of course, the TYPE EDIT item.

The TYPE EDIT function is selected, and the user is confronted with a screen containing margins, a ruler, a status line, and a flashing cursor, all which graphically represent a sheet of typing paper. Next, a variety of lessons which are contained on a student resource disk are called up using the GET/SAVE/REMOVE function. The student then proceeds with experiments in manipulating the cursor through various portions of the document. There are several carefully developed lessons which prompt the child on how to use the ruler, margins, tab settings, etc. Now the child must quickly learn to save the changes made during these lessons.

The students must again use the GET/SAVE/REMOVE function to store the completed document on their student disk. Each of the twenty-four students is given a personal disk. The personal disk is used in each of the subsequent lessons either to store their work or to recapture uncompleted lessons for the purpose of completing them. Once a student finishes a lesson, it must be carefully printed out and turned in for verification.

The print function can be employed at different levels of sophistication. At first, the student is given specific directions that help to produce a basic print out. As the lessons become more complex, the printouts also become more involved. Soon the child learns that the appearance of the printed package can be altered simply by changing the various components of the printing menu. Very soon, by changing margins and print spacing and adding headings and footings, most students begin to produce professional looking documents. Some of the more creative documents actually border on the artistic.

As students proceed, once again their attention is captured by interesting lessons on the more sophisticated capabilities of the TYPE/EDIT function. Using a variety of exercises, each student is taught how to boldface items, to move blocks of text, to duplicate text, and to remove unwanted pieces of text. As individuals approach the final lessons, they are required to set decimal and typewriter tabs. Soon, other lessons direct the student to search for and replace words and phrases throughout more lengthy documents contained on the student learning activities disk. Next, the seventh grader learns to proof text using the program's dictionary function. Finally, the concept of templates is introduced. The student begins with a template of a business letter and then progresses to printing simple form letters using this template. Having learned general use of the word processor, the student is ready to begin experimenting with the graphic programs.

The fourth component of the seventh grade curriculum is an integration of basic graphic techniques with the word processor. Students become familiar with a variety of fonts, page layouts, drawing implements, and programs. Print Shop is used to teach students how to create covers and title pages for their word processed documents. The truly artistic are introduced to drawing devices such as the Koala Pad and drawing programs such as Dazzle Draw and Animate. The students are encouraged to be original and to integrate the word processor with their own graphics to complete a basic research project related to the world of computers and computing. The librarian's endless energies and technical assistance and the wonderful computer resources in the Middle School Library Media Center have enabled the students to complete imaginative reports. Students can get additional hands-on experience by using the library's computer terminal which is hooked up to a Dow Jones information retrieval system. This system helps children gather report data. The report topics have ranged from a thorough piece on "History of Computers and Computing" to reviews of new software available to the latest in robotics or computer technology. The student who completes this course is well prepared for the introduction of the new topics and techniques taught in the eighth grade segment of the program.

The current eighth grade program contains five integrated segments. They are, of course, not equally proportioned. For example, the historical or cultural aspects of the computer are an integral part of learning about computers, but they are not a large part of most applications programs. The first of the segments concerns a brief look at computers and society. Students are taught how to identify the various computers by the size and function. They are also able to recognize the characteristics associated with the five generations of the computer. Since the program's thrust is applications, the children move quickly to the more operational types of lessons. This leads to the second segment of the ten-week course.

As students progress from seventh to eighth grade, a lapse of time exists between the applications courses. It is therefore necessary for some keyboarding review to hone the skills required by the remainder of the eighth grade course. Microtype, The Wonderful World of PAWS and other keyboarding programs and exercises are used to give the child a fresh feel for the keyboard. The student is then reintroduced to the PFS:WRITE word processing program for a brief period of time.

The review course for PFS:WRITE uses an activities disk which gives the student considerable practice with the more essential word processing functions. These activities contain prompts that allow the student to work independently for most of the review sessions. If more review is required than time allows, individuals are encouraged to attend the morning lab for assistance. The A.M. lab is an integral part of the program, and it will be discussed in more detail later on.

With the word processing review behind them, the students are reacquainted with templates. The templates, however, become more sophisticated, more functional, and even more creative than they were when the student first learned how to use them as part of the seventh grade program. Now the child creates intricate templates which are interdisciplinary in nature. That is, a given student may create a scientific template to be used for science homework or a bibliographic template to be used when writing reports for the English class. Ultimately, through the encouragement and cooperation of teachers from other disciplines, the student produces reports which are recognized for credit in both the computer lab and other subject areas. The eighth grader learns how to create standardized lists which are later mechanically appended to documents that he/she previously created with the word processor. Once again, as in the seventh grade, the student is encouraged to produce a brief research paper using the written resources and computer facilities of the Library Media Center. Eighth grade students are asked to use the computerized information retrieval system to recreate movie or book review documents based on the printouts they receive electronically. As time allows, children complete a variety of extra credit projects, such as an electronic review sheet which contains information to help them study units in an academic area. They also may complete homework assignments with the word processor. Individuals now have a working knowledge of PFS:WRITE and are ready for the next component of the course.

The PFS:FILE program is used to teach a data base system to the students. This system allows the user to group information according to a variety of criteria determined by the user and then to manipulate and control this information. Of course, quick and easy access to these data is what makes the data management system such a valuable tool for anyone who may need this information in some form. The students quickly become aware of the usefulness of a data management system when they are asked to seek out information contained in a long and comprehensive paper version of a file. The same information is contained in the electronic file they are about to use. A teacher directed search using the electronic file allows the students to draw the following conclusions:

A. The speed with which one can search for and retrieve information with the aid of a data management system cannot be matched by the student when using the paper file.

B. The electronic file allows one to manipulate this information with a speed that would take a paper file user hours, days, or even weeks.

C. The printouts achieved electronically are varied and can be of enormous use to anyone researching information. The ease with which one can change data and produce reports cannot be matched by the paper file user.

Next, the student is familiarized with the PFS:FILE function menu. Two electronic files (from Scholastic's Working with PFS:FILE) are used to teach the data base component of the program. The first file entitled "Olympics" contains olympic records from 1948 to present. A sample file form is as follows:

Olympic Records 1948 - Present

Event: 10 Kilometers
Category: Nordic Skiing
Year: 1984
Site: Yugoslavia
Sex: (Male, Female, Mixed): Female
Scoring (Time, Points, Distance): T
Gold Medal Winner
Individual: Marja-Liisa Haemaelainen
Nationality: Finland
Winning Score: 31:44.2

The student becomes proficient in accessing information from this olympic file and in completing reports based upon the information ascertained from this file. Each user is able to quickly find the desired form by using the appropriate search criteria. For example, one might be asked to locate all the forms in the file containing gold medal winners from Finland. His/Her search criteria would have to contain a statement about Finland as opposed to selecting all countries in the Nationality location.

Perhaps, another student might be trying to locate a United States gold medal winner of the Women's 3,000 Meters event with a specific score during a certain year. The student would need to set up special search criteria based upon key factors in the search. The key factors in this search would be specifics about the following data items: the Nationality, Event, Winning Score, Sex, and Year.

The next stage for the child is to learn how to print out the information that results from the search using the PFS:REPORT program in conjunction with the PFS:FILE program. Using this program, the student can request a simple, straight-forward printout or one containing a more sophisticated format. A more demanding printout might contain not just a simple list of gold medal winners from Finland but instead a list arranged according to winning scores in descending order. The printout might also contain only certain specified information.

A printout from the ZOOS file might contain only the Canadian zoos with greater than 100 acres arranged in descending order according to number of species. The experienced student knows how to calculate lines per page, the number of forms across a page, and the form width. He/She also knows how to evoke special printing effects using codes which enable the printer to set up condensed or expanded style printing.

A personal file devised by the student is the natural next step. Each student must create his/her own file containing information that will be useful, perhaps a personal phonebook or a file of collectibles. The completed files are printed and turned in for evaluation. When this task is completed, the child learns how to integrate the word processing and data base programs.

Each student must create a template of a form letter relating to the information in the file. Once that is completed, the student prints a series of letters which are electronically selected and then integrated with specific forms from the file. The result is a professional looking document made up of information from the template and the data base file.

With the data base well in hand, the students are given time to complete a project they select from a list offered by the library. A typical project might be to use Long Island Population Statistics to create a file. Based on the information in their file, they write a two page report showing population growth in some selected townships. Finally, they use graphic programs to create charts and a cover page.

The final component in our curriculum is the graphic element. The eighth grade student may choose to learn a variety of sophisticated graphic programs. The advanced student may decide to learn PFS:GRAPH, a program which integrates the entire PFS series.

As part of a continued commitment toward making students computer literate, a morning lab is available. The lab runs five mornings a week and offers all students the opportunity to use the microcomputers. The lab is designed to offer help to those students in the applications course who need to make up missing work or simply to reinforce the lessons they are currently learning. The morning lab also consists of students who have a desire to explore the many programs available. Programs include challenging critical thinking skill games, graphic programs, and creative and expository writing programs. Students also visit the lab to use the word processor and graphic tools to complete assignments across the curriculum. The primary goals of the lab are to initiate the novice user by providing a non-threatening hands-on experience with the computer and to provide the experienced user with the latest software and technology.

Benefits

As we reflect on the evolution of this innovation, we realize that a variety of benefits have occurred. Some of these are worth mentioning.

1. The teachers sensed a genuine commitment to their professional growth, and they responded with enthusiasm. Feedback from the staff clearly indicated that they were satisfied that many of their initial concerns were considered

seriously by administration. In addition, the innovation was carried out during a difficult time of declining student enrollment and its potential threat of teacher excessing. Since additional staff was needed to teach the new sections of computer applications, no teachers were excessed. Not surprisingly, the English Staff as well as the entire faculty demonstrated high morale as they supported the innovation.

2. The use of a professional peer as a mentor showed respect for a vitally qualified resource within the teacher group, and it simultaneously supported an important aspect of teacher empowerment. This thrust also provided a smooth, practical transition since the mentor who conducted the workshops was the same individual who provided the follow-up application to the computer laboratory.

3. Most of the children effectively used computer applications in general and word processing in particular. During the word processing unit, some of the children learned to revise their writing with facility and thus to generate better written products.

4. Several special education students who were mainstreamed into the computer applications classes had severe dysgraphia and therefore had difficulty producing and understanding their own handwriting. These individuals gradually developed an aversion to writing. After having positive exposure to word processing, however, they were delighted to see a clear version of their text on the monitor. They also wrote

and revised essays more often and actually grew to enjoy writing.

5. The comprehensive steps taken to carry out computer applications supported long-term implementation of this innovation. Providing a budget line item that would be protected from future cuts, supporting continuous inservice education and curriculum development, and, most important, involving administration and the entire English staff assured ownership and sustenance of the innovation.

Summary

Thus far, the computer applications program is reaching a schoolwide audience. All students in grades 7-8 attend a ten-week mini-course each year and benefit from a variety of worthwhile experiences. The success of this innovation has much to do with the comprehensive commitment to inservice education and curriculum development. Feedback from the faculty indicates that they are satisfied with the school district's efforts and that they are especially enthusiastic about receiving guidance from a peer/mentor. In addition, the cooperative efforts of the central office staff, the Middle School principal, the language arts coordinator, and the English teachers have increased the chances of both short-term and long-term success. Since the Middle School has just been expanded to include sixth graders, future plans include adapting our computer applications program to reach this group of children. The entire program will also be evaluated and updated on a continuous basis. Although the schoolwide efforts described in this chapter contributed significantly to positive outcomes, the most important factor was the cooperative leadership that promoted and sustained these professional efforts.

Chapter 6

New Perspectives on Reading Instruction

New Terminology

Whole Language: The Umbrella

Prior Knowledge

Writing and Reading

Metacognition

Summary

References

New Perspectives on Reading Instruction

In this chapter, we provide a foundation concerning important trends in reading education. Since some of these trends generate new terminology, we have listed potentially difficult terms and their related meanings. This "ready reference" should facilitate the reading of this chapter.

discourse forces--are an interaction between the writer's intent and the reader's understanding. Discourse forces represent varied purposes for writing, such as, inform, entertain, persuade, and literary-aesthetic.

discourse types--refers to different types of writing, such as *descriptive* (using vivid words that show a real or imaginary character), *narrative* (linking a series of events in time to a theme), and *expository* (presenting information in a clear, understandable way).

metacognition--refers to the active monitoring and control of the reading act.

reader response theory--considers emotional and intellectual factors as they support the belief that comprehension takes place when reader and text interact.

reading-writing links--support the view that these processes are related to each other and therefore should not be treated as separate, fragmented entities.

response heuristic--helps students consider aspects of their personal background when writing about their understanding of text.

schema theory--concerns the importance of prior knowledge and its link to reading comprehension. Generally, the more prior knowledge one has about a topic, the more likely one is able to comprehend material about the topic.

whole language--involves immersing children in natural language environments, such as reading children's literature and generating authentic writing.

The title of this chapter is probably as much a misnomer as it is an attention-getting device, since the important trends we discuss have been supported by a language arts knowledge explosion of the past two decades. Whole language, schema theory (prior knowledge), writing, and metacognition are intertwined as they represent an interactive, process-oriented philosophy of reading. When viewed from a global perspective, they demonstrate their worth over the more traditional sub-skill approach which continues to dominate in American schools.

Whole Language: The Umbrella

According to Goodman (1986, p. 34), whole language rejects:

- isolating skill sequences
- slicing up reading and writing into grade slices, each slice neatly following and dependent on prior ones
- simplifying texts by controlling their sentence structures and vocabulary, or organizing them around phonic patterns
- equating reading and writing with scores on tests of "sub-skills"
- isolating reading and writing instruction from its use in learning, or in actual reading and writing
- believing there are substantial numbers of learners who have difficulty learning to read or write for any physical or intellectual reason

Goodman (1986) stresses the importance of readers using their prior knowledge as they construct meaning during reading. Effective readers also guess or hypothesize about what will occur in the reading material, and they monitor their reading to determine if they predicted correctly or if they should self-correct to make sense of the text. Another principle of whole language is that writing be effective by making sense to the intended audience and that it be efficient by including only enough information to be understood. Goodman also highlights the importance of the three language systems interacting in reading and in writing instruction: the semantic (meanings), the syntactic (sentence patterns), and the graphophonic (sound and letter patterns). Within this pragmatic context, comprehension of text is the major goal of readers, and expression of meaning is the major goal of writers. Goodman cautions, however, that readers and writers are strongly limited by their prior knowledge.

Prior Knowledge

Pearson and Johnson (1978) believe that reading comprehension involves building bridges between what is new and what is known. The important relationship of prior knowledge (or schemata) and reading comprehension has also been noted by Adams and Bruce (1980, 1982), Anderson, Pichert, and Shirey (1979), Anderson, Spiro, and Anderson (1978), Brown (1977), Rumelhart (1980), Rumelhart and Ortony (1977), and Sanacore (1982, 1983a, 1985).

In one study, Stevens (1980) found that students with high prior knowledge of topics demonstrated excellent comprehension of material about these topics. In a subsequent study, Stevens (1982) found that giving students direct teaching of background knowledge (a schema for the topic) can improve their reading comprehension.

These and other findings have implications for administrators and supervisors as they guide the teaching staff to help students apply their prior knowledge to reading assignments. One worthwhile suggestion is Langer's (1981) prereading plan PREP, a three-step assessment/instructional procedure designed for use before assigning textbook reading. In this small group discussion activity, involving about 10 students, the teacher encourages initial associations with a key word, phrase, or picture selected from the text. For example, the teacher might ask students to say anything that comes to their mind when they hear the word banking. As students respond, the teacher writes each response on the chalkboard.

Learners then reflect on their initial associations; "they may weigh, reject, accept, revise, and integrate some of the ideas the come to mind" (Langer, 1981, p. 154).

Finally, students reformulate their knowledge of the material to be read, prompted by the teacher to discuss any new ideas about the topic. Students' responses may reflect more elaboration, refinement, or revision since they have had opportunity to think about their prior knowledge and to place it within an appropriate structure.

The importance of PReP lies in its process orientation. Especially noteworthy is the assessment aspect, which helps teachers (1) determine the amount of information a reader has about a specific topic, as well as how the reader has organized this information; (2) become more aware of the language a student uses to express knowledge about a given subject; and (3) make judgments about how much additional background information and vocabulary are needed for successful comprehension. More discussion on prior knowledge and PReP can be found in Langer (1982).

In addition to Langer's prereading plan, educational leaders can guide teachers to use Thelen's (1982) strategy for preparing students to read content assignments. Thelen combines the format of the structured overview and concept attainment to support students in organizing their prior knowledge into conceptual frameworks, to fill informational gaps in students' backgrounds, and to blend these experiences with new content. To do this, teachers provide structured overviews or graphic organizers to clarify new concepts.

For example, the teacher may motivate learners to help develop a graphic hierarchy of supraordinate, coordinate, and subordinate concepts. This structure provides examples and nonexamples as well as relevant and irrelevant attributes of the new concept (see the Figure). When students show they understand, the teacher encourages them to generlize the concepts to new situations, such as those found in the reading assignment (Frayer, Frederick, and Klausmeier, 1969); Thelen, 1982).

Another strategy for stimulating learners' prior knowledge is the PQ4R study procedure developed by Thomas and Robinson (1977). Based on the SQ3R approach (Robinson, 1962), this technique includes preview, question, read, reflect, recite, and review as steps to improve the reading of chapter-length materials when the student's purpose is thorough understanding of content.

The preview step supports the schema-theoretic view of comprehension because it activates readers' prior knowledge. The other steps reinforce the preview step, since prior knowledge recently recalled can be confirmed, bridged with new knowledge, or reconstructed. In addition, this study procedure helps readers become flexible in shifting from one schema to another, especially when dealing with subthemes of textbook chapters.

Langer's description of PReP, Thelen's support of the structured overview, and Thomas and Robinson's discussion of PQ4R give useful insights for helping readers integrate prior knowledge with reading assignments. This integration was encouraged more than two decades ago by Ausubel (1968 p. vi) when he said, "The most important single factor influencing learning is what the learner already knows. Ascertain this and teach him accordingly."

Writing and Reading

Administrators should be aware that writing and reading are frequently viewed as separate entities, unrelated to each other. This limited perception usually results in fragmented curriculum development and isolated skill instruction.

One way of preventing these negative outcomes is to understand written discourse. Brewer (1980), who has gleaned ideas from literary theory, rhetoric, and stylistics, provides a guide. Although he is concerned with a psychological perspective, his insights have implications for understanding writing as a means of improving reading.

Brewer proposes three basic types of written discourse: description, narration, and exposition. Each reflects an underlying cognitive structure and a surface structure. For example, descriptive discourse embodies a stationary scene in a visual-spatial way, reflected to a degree with locatives like behind, above, near, and to the right of. Narrative discourse presents a series of events in time through a thematic or causal chain, using terms such as while, then, and before. Expository discourse represents abstract logical processes (presumably involving classification, comparison, induction, etc.) organized with words like because, since, and thus.

In addition to the cognitive and surface structures reflecting each discourse type, Brewer's classification requires discourse forces which are "an interaction of the communicative intent of the author and the perception of the reader" (p. 224). Brewer proposes four basic discourse forces: inform, entertain, persuade, and literary-aesthetic.

In informative discourse, the author provides information. In entertaining discourse, the author attempts to excite, amuse, frighten, etc. In persuasive discourse, the author tries to convince the reader to adopt certain ideas or to do something. In literary-aesthetic discourse, the author provides an artistic experience and expects the reader to view the discourse as an art form.

Surface cues to these four discourse forces are present in text to some extent, as they were for the three discourse types, although the cues are not always as clear for the discourse forces. For example, lists are characteristic of the informative force, adjectives may be a cue to the literary-aesthetic force, incongruity may signal entertainment.

Brewer admits that his classification scheme may need elaboration if it is to account for the variety and complexity of actual discourse. Nonetheless, Brewer's ideas have valuable classroom implications. By encouraging students to identify and write various types of discourse (and discourse forces), teachers can help them understand different processes and constructs. This awareness can improve reading comprehension, since students gain insights and reinforce behaviors that are similar in both writing and reading.

The following expectations are gleaned from Composition in the English Language Arts Curriculum K-12, published by the New York State Education Department (1986). Although these expectations differ somewhat from the structure proposed by Brewer, they are presented in a more practical context that supports process writing in the classroom. Administrators should encourage teachers to use them in ways that will help learners become more aware of similarities in both the writing and reading processes. These expectations include:

1. To express self (including personal feelings, reactions, values, interests, or attitudes) through a journal entry, friendly letter, personal response to literature, and poem.
2. To narrate (including a fictional story or an account of real events) through a narrative of actual experience, short story, skit, and feature article about a person or event.
3. To explain (including factual information presented in a clear, understandable way) through a process essay, business letter ordering merchandise or complaining about items received, research report, news article, and character study based on a work of literature.
4. To describe (including the use of words that appeal to the senses) through a composition describing a real or imaginary person, feature article describing a place, classified advertisement selling an article.

5. To persuade (including changing the opinion or influencing the action of the audience) through a book review, advertisement about a new product, letter to the editor against an issue, and an editorial in favor of an issue.

Further support for linking the writing and reading processes is provided by Petrosky (1982), who discusses the similarities in reading, response to literature, and composition. He argues that understanding is composing "and that the best representation of our understandings of texts begins with certain kinds of compositions" (p.19). Thus, the "putting together" of meaning as individuals read is similar to the "putting together" of thoughts as they write. During reading, meaning is constructed both consciously and subconsciously; during writing understanding of text is usually conscious.

Comprehension in both reading and composing, however, is dependent on learners' prior knowledge. Here, schemata reveal themselves as including not only cognitive factors but also affective aspects, such as personal awareness, feelings, and experiences (Barlett, 1932). These affective components of prior knowledge support the reader response theory of interpreting text, with its belief that comprehension takes place when reader and text interact.

The reader response view of comprehension is exciting but also raises serious questions about shallow versus substantive understanding of text. To set appropriate standards for interpretation, Petrosky recommends Bleich's (1978) response heuristic which helps readers write about their discourse comprehension by blending aspects of their personality and of the world as they perceive it. With this foundation, critical discussions can lead students to analyze their readings and the process that informs them (Bartholomae and Petrosky, 1981).

Petrosky also gives examples of some of his students' responses to literature: Poor responses are sketchy, unfocused, narrow, and lacking in explanation and description as they relate to previous personal knowledge; good responses include specific retellings of the text, explicit connections between personal associations and interpretations of the text, and generalizations from the discussion. To encourage these good outcomes, teachers need encouragement to read and write with their students, guiding them to realize that comprehension of text is an act of composition.

In addition to Petrosky's noteworthy ideas, Robinson (1983) presents excellent suggestions for integrating the reading and writing processes in the content areas. He focuses on major writing patterns and pertinent examples which support both the reading and writing processes. As students increase their awareness of the similarities in reading and writing, they also increase their potential for understanding paragraph functions.

Integrated with learners' affective and cognitive background, these insights can lead to improved comprehension.

Robinson's (1983) suggested writing patterns for science include enumeration, classification, generalization, problem solution, comparison or contrast, and sequence. For mathematics he suggests the main patterns are concept development, principle development, and problem solution. In addition, Robinson discusses writing patterns for social studies, English, business, driver education, health, home economics, and industrial arts.

Brewer's classification of written discourse types, Petrosky's focus on the relationships between writing and reading, and Robinson's presentation of writing patterns for the content areas have positive implications for teaching and learning. Administrators and supervisors should guide teachers to visualize more clearly that writing and reading complement each other and therefore must not be treated as separate entities. Curriculum developers can realize the importance of blending writing and reading in their philosophy and related goals, objectives, materials, strategies, and activities. These approaches demonstrate to students that comprehending text is facilitated by a broader understanding of communications (Sanacore, 1983b).

Metacognition

Although the links between writing and reading are important, educational leaders should consider guiding their staffs to better understand and apply aspects of metacognition and reading. According to Flavell (1976, p. 232), metacognition

> refers to one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes and products or anything related to them,e.g.,the learning-relevant properties of information or data. For example, I am engaging in metacognition (metamemory, metalearning, metaattention, metalanguage, or whatever) if I notice that I am having more trouble learning A than B; if it strikes me that I should dobulecheck C before accepting it as a fact; if it occurs to me that I had better scrutinize each and every alternative in any multiple-choice type task situation before deciding which is the best one; if I sense that I had better make a note of D because I may forget it....Metacognition refers, among other things, to the active monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration of these processes in relation to the cognitive objects or data on which they bear, usually in the service of some concrete goal or objective.

More specifically, Brown (1980) links aspects of metacognition and reading. For example, in "knowing when you know," the reader monitors the degree of understanding or its lack; this is essential since recognizing failure to comprehend is prerequisite to using strategies to overcome the comprehension block.

In "knowing what you know," the learner is aware of the knowledge she/he already possesses and is able to operate on this knowledge; implicit in this is facility in predicting what is known (even when immediate recall has failed) and what is not known.

In "knowing what you need to know," the reader is conscious of certain types of information needed to complete a task effectively. This outcome is achieved with more ease and efficiency when the student knows the purposes of the task.

In "knowing the utility of active intervention," the reader knows that active strategies, such as categorization and rehearsal, facilitate comprehension. However, preliminary data suggest that although students may be aware of the importance of active strategies, they may not use them.

Brown also discusses the importance of "study time utilization," focusing on the learner's problems in selecting and studying main ideas, choosing suitable retrieval cues, and estimating readiness for a test.

Similar to (though not identical with) Brown's perspective is Wade and Reynold's (1989) thesis which supports students' active control of their learning but establishes three prerequisites for such control: (1) task awareness, or what they should study in a specific learning context; (2) strategy awareness, or how they can best learn it; and (3) performance awareness, or to what degree they have actually learned it (Reynolds, Wade, Trathen, & Lapan 1989; Wade & Reynolds, 1989).

Since aspects of metacognition can help improve reading performance, administrators should guide teachers to pursue strategies that link these two areas. Though not exhaustive, the following suggestions provide some direction when blending metacognition and reading (Sanacore, 1984, 1985):

- Teach students (specifically those with low and average verbal abilities) to generate questions as they read and study expository text. Using the procedures suggested by Anderson et al. (1974), students can be taught to recognize the main ideas of paragraphs, develop questions about the main ideas but reflecting new examples of the concepts, and paraphrase their questions about the concepts if the new examples are inappropriate. These criteria represent "good student-generated comprehension questions" and similar criteria were used in the Andre and Anderson (1978-79) study. Students would benefit from initial exposure to model paragraphs with questions generated by the teacher. Then, learners should attempt single paragraphs and also longer passages and should have opportunities to construct "good" questions related to these materials.

- Teach students to create story-specific questions from schema-general questions during the reading of complex narrative text. Donlan and Singer (1979) present schema-general questions concerning a short story's leading character, the character's goal, the obstacles, the outcome, and the theme, all of which help students comprehend better the structure and content of short stories.

As narrative text becomes more complex, however, students must learn to convert story-general questions to story-specific questions and will benefit from reading to answer their questions. Here's an example (Singer and Donlan, 1982) of students generating story specific questions from schema-general questions.

Schema-general questions

1. Who is the leading character?
2. What is the leading character trying to accomplish in the story?
3. What stands in the way of the leading character reaching the desired goal?

Story-specific questions

1. Is this story going to be more about the officer or the barber?
2. Will the barber kill the officer with the razor?
3. Will the officer be a willing victim?

- Teach students to monitor and resolve blocks to comprehension. Using a passage that a reader can decode proficiently, intersperse questions about it, some requiring lookbacks and retrieval. These questions should be constructed so answers are not automatic but do require looking back into the passage.

On the other hand, care should be taken so questions do not disrupt the flow of meaning significantly. To observe lookback behavior more easily, present the passage on separate sheets with a paragaph on the top and questions on the bottom of each sheet. Some questions should require readers to look back, while others may be relatively easy to answer.

After reading each paragraph, the student is asked questions. The completed paragraph is placed at an angle so the student is encouraged to reread this material and the observer is able to monitor lookback behavior. Further, the observer constantly views both verbal and nonverbal behaviors. According to Patterson, Cosgrove, and O'Brien (1980), nonverbal measures can reflect comprehension or lack of comprehension. Thus, lookbacks, actual corrections, eye contact with direction-giver, grunts, long response hesitations, facial distortions, etc. should be noted. Since these techniques are used more effectively with individuals, the classroom teacher would certainly benefit from the support of a reading specilist, teaching assistant, or tutor.

All students, including remedial students (Ekwall and Shanker, 1988), should be encouraged to use lookback and resolving strategies regularly when comprehension blocks occur. They should be motivated to "(1) recognize that a failure has occurred, (2) decide whether or not to do something about the failure at that time, and (3) engage (conditional upon step two) in fixup activities which supply the prerequisite information" (Alessi, Anderson, and Goetz, 1979, p. 199)

- Teach students about the structure of textbook chapters, guiding them to use strategies that increase their comprehension and retrieval of information. These strategies should direct attention to the organizational aspects of the material, leading students to avoid reading the material nonstop. Using textbooks with consistently organized chapters, students can learn to apply Robinson's (1962) SQ3R, Spache and Berg's (1978) PQRST, Thomas and Robinson's (1977) PQ4R, Thomas and Robinson's (1982) PQRST, or another variation. These study procedures can improve students' understanding and retention of information when students use them with reading materials that have subheadings or clear topic statements; when students generate questions from the subheadings; when students read and recite important information related to the subheadings; and when students rehearse the entire chapter, section by section, until they decide further study is unnecessary. These outcomes suggest that readers know their own intellectual processes, since they demonstrate conscious awareness of what is important to study, how to study, and how much studying is needed (Flavell and Wellman, 1977). Thus, learners are given a means of monitoring the efficiency of their reading and studying.

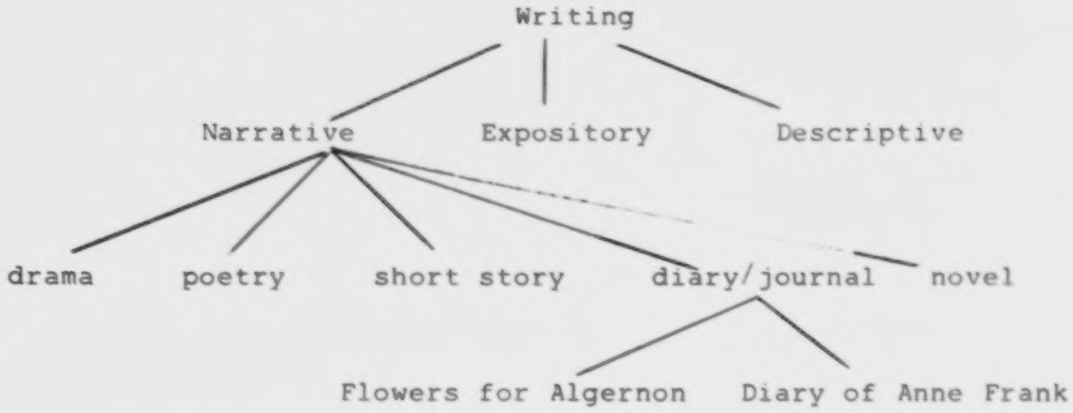
- Teach students to learn and recall valuable information by adhering to the text structure. Use well-organized passages with recognizable top-level structures and suitable reading levels, and give students a systematic guide that helps them determine what is important. Adhering to text structure, however, may require exposure to different discourse types in the following sequence: stories, description, antecedent/consequent, problem/solution, and comparison (argumentative text) (Meyer, Brandt, and Bluth, 1980). Robinson (1983) also provides excellent examples of these discourse types as they relate to different subject areas. Initial sensitivity to these top-level structures may be learned more easily if the passages are presented with underlined signaling words. Thus, in a problem/solution passage, the first paragraph might show underlined words, such as problem, for example, and also, and the second paragraph might contain underlined words like solution, first, second, and third (Meyer, Brandt, and Bluth, 1980). As students develop facility identifying top-level structures, they should be exposed to passages with no underlined signaling words.

Appropriate use of metacognitive strategies during reading suggests that reading comprehension reflects active processes and that students are exercising degrees of control over these processes. In addition, the potential is increased for upgrading reading performance.

Summary

With appropriate knowledge, educational leaders can be a dynamic force in supporting reading instruction through an intertwining of whole language, schema theory (prior knowledge), writing, and metacognition. This thrust suggests that success in reading as well as in communications is more likely to occur when synthesis rather than fragmentation is encouraged. The potential for upgrading reading performance is therefore increased since reading comprehension is promoted as an active process.

Hierarchy of target concept diary/journal*



Concept:Diary/Journal

1. Examples:
   Flowers for Algernon
   Diary of Anne Frank

2. Relevant attributes:
   personal
   entries are dated
   entries are made on some type of schedule (daily, weekly)
   writing style is informal
   entries are short

3. Irrelevant attributes:
   fiction
   nonfiction
   writing schedule can vary
   form
   readership (for private use or for an audience)
4. Nonexamples:
   poetry
   drama
   short story
   novel

*Adopted from Judie Thelen, "Preparing Students for Content Reading Assignments," *Journal of Reading*, vol. 25, (March 1982), pp. 544-549.

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Chapter 7

Reading Comprehension Myths: Administrators Beware

Myth 1. Poor readers should master literal comprehension before they are challenged to read inferentially.

Myth 2. Primary school children are not ready to read inferentially.

Myth 3. Questions to aid comprehension must come from the teacher or the textbook.

Myth 4. Real comprehension is a matter of finding the author's exact meaning.

Myth 5. Looking back during reading is negative behavior and will result in loss of comprehension.

Myth 6. Students with adequate reading skills automatically read and study textbook chapters effectively.

Summary

References

Reading Comprehension Myths: Administrators Beware

The language arts knowledge explosion of the 1970s and 1980s has provided important insights about reading comprehension. Journal articles, research quarterlies, monographs, and educational conventions have reflected some of the best syntheses of theory, research, and practice concerning the comprehension act. These positive outcomes, however, have not led to substantial change in classroom methodology. Unfortunately, the following myths about reading comprehension are among those still being perpetuated (Sanacore, 1985). Administrators and supervisors should be aware of these myths so that instructional misconceptions do not affect leadership practices.

Myth 1. Poor readers should master literal comprehension before they are challenged to read inferentially.

Teachers tend to concentrate less on inferential comprehension with problem readers. Hansen and Hubbard (1984), however, found that poor readers in the 4th grade could learn to draw inferences from text when they were taught an inferential thinking approach, given many opportunities to practice thinking inferentially, and encouraged to discuss how they drew inferences.

This instruction included three types of discussion. The first type was a metacognitive discussion, conducted as a prereading activity. As students talked about their new reading approach, their awareness of the underlying principles of comprehension and how they learn increased. Students had opportunities to compare their personal experiences with those that occurred in the story they were assigned to read.

In strategy discussions, another prereading activity, students made inferences by connecting old and new information -- that is, by using what they already knew to help them understand concepts, first introduced by the teacher, that they would subsequently read in the story. During each discussion, "they modeled the inferential process three times-- three important concepts were preselected from each story and a pair of questions was generated for each concept" (Hansen and Hubbard, 1984, p. 588).

After reading the story, the students were able to respond to inferential questions by integrating some of their prior knowledge with information in the story. For instance, students answered such inferential questions as "Why do you think a half-hitch knot might be useful in other situations?" "Why do you suppose the balloon went down so fast?" "Why are fire engines called to accidents?" Readers shared their thoughts about the story which gave them a new understanding of the text.

Students also realized that reading comprehension is more than simply retrieving facts and details. As they read, these readers "compared, extended, interpreted, and actively created messages" (Hansen and Hubbard, 1984, p. 589). In fact, they could no longer be considered "poor" readers.

Myth2. Primary school children are not ready to read inferentially.

Related to the previous myth is the misconception that young children are unable to deal with reading activities beyond the basics. Interestingly, primary school children usually draw spontaneous inferences concerning world situations from their play encounters and from television and listening activities. Yet they tend not to make spontaneous inferences from what they read. The research findings of Anderson and Shifrin (1980), Dreher (1981), and Paris and Lindauer (1976) also suggest that children are able to instantiate--use context to refine their understandings of what words represent-- but that they cannot do so automatically. Hansen (1981) found that pre- and postreading discussions can promote spontaneous inferencing if the children visualize the relationship between their prior knowledge and inferences related to text and if they engage in substantial practice answering inferential questions.

Teachers can guide young readers to make inferences by providing them with a variety of activities, such as drawing or finding pictures that enrich the context of sentences and passages. Another approach is motivating students to act out sentences selected from a story-- dramatizing the sense of particular words as used in the context of the sentences.

A similar activity is a modified version of the game charades, using sentences from a story children are about to read or have already read. This variation of the game helps young readers gain a sense of spontaneous inference making through motions and sounds, as well as through words and voice inflections (Sanacore, 1990).

Discussions of stories also guide children to integrate context and world knowledge and, thus, to make inferences with more facility. Hansen (1981) suggests prereading activities that show children how to understand new information by weaving it into old information. This approach is based on a weaving metaphor (see Figure 1). Hansen also stresses the importance of posing inferential questions as postreading activities, since such carefully developed questions motivate young readers to think beyond the literal level of understanding. In addition, this important outcome can become part of young readers' natural thinking process if the inferential questions and class discussions are integrated continuously.

Myth 3. Questions to aid comprehension must come from the teacher or the textbook.

Although teacher-generated inferential questions can improve students' understanding of text, questions created by students also increase comprehension. Andre and Anderson (1978-79) found that high school students can be taught to develop questions related to the main points in text and, consequently, to facilitate comprehension of the reading material. Low and middle ability learners seemed to gain more benefits from the self-questioning instruction than did high verbal ability students.

Another study concerning self-questioning was conducted by Singer and Donlan (1982). To comprehend complex short stories, 11th grade student were taught a problem-solving schema, which included the structure of short stories and related schema-general questions. They also learned to use the schema-general questions to generate specific questions about the story. For example, the teacher posed general questions and students generated specific questions. Students then read the material while concentrating on answering their own questions. The results showed that students who learned self-questioning strategies significantly improved their understanding of complex short stories.

More discussion on self-questioning is provided in our chapter "New Perspectives on Reading Instruction."

Myth 4. Real comprehension is a matter of finding the author's exact meaning.

Some classroom teachers still believe that understanding text is comprehending the author's precise meaning. Even experienced reviewers, however, interpret a writer's work differently. This diversity of interpretation is usually the result of each reviewer bringing to the written work a unique background of cognitive and affective experiences. Yet, some teachers persist in structuring reading activities as if they are separate from a student's background. Such an approach suggests to an individual that his/her background has dubious value during reading and has little to do with understanding text.

Interestingly, as early as 1932, Bartlett discussed the importance of the reader's background in the context of intellectual factors as well as personal feelings, experiences, and awareness (Bartlett, 1932). Rosenblatt (1978) also elaborated on the worth of an individual's experiences, especially as he/she transacts with text. If the transaction is with literary reading, the reader interprets text (such as plays, novels and short stories) by means of feelings, attitudes and perceptions which are related to the reader's imagination. If the transaction is with nonaesthetic or efferent reading, the individual is primarily concerned with acquiring information or solving problems. Both types of reading experiences, however, cannot be clearly distinguished because they are based on a variety of purposes. For example,

> the purposes may complement one another, for it is possible to read for information and savor the experience at the same time... A text may be efferent for one reader and aesthetic for another, or it may be read efferently on one occasion and aesthetically on another (Chaplin, 1982, p. 151).

Such diversity of text, purpose and experience provides further support for viewing comprehension as an active process between reader and text rather than as a passive activity in which the reader attempts to find meaning inherent in text.

Myth 5. Looking back during reading is negative behavior and will result in loss of comprehension.

Some individual diagnostic instruments (both standardized and informal) still penalize students for looking back while reading, because such behavior is considered to be a regression that lessens comprehension. Instructional activities for improving rate of comprehension have also contributed to this belief. In fact, mechanically controlled reading devices for increasing reading rate actually prevent readers from looking back. These diagnostic and instructional practices have generated misconceptions that do not consider the constructive aspects of looking back while reading.

Not only does looking back help students comprehend what they read, but they can use it as a strategy to help them find blocks to comprehension. Looking back thus becomes a prerequisite for resolving any loss of understanding.

Garner and Reis (1981) studied the effects of spontaneous lookbacks on eliminating comprehension blocks. Students read a three-paragraph narrative passage with questions following each paragraph. To answer certain questions, the students had to look back and locate information in the passage. The researchers found that poor comprehenders generally did not monitor their reading and did not spontaneously use lookbacks. Sixth and 7th grade good comprehenders monitored but mostly did not look back spontaneously, while 8th grade good comprehenders monitored and looked back. Good comprehenders, therefore, noticed a comprehension block, but only the oldest of these readers recognized that something could be done about the comprehension failure and acted to overcome it.

The results of this study have important implications for readers. All students should be encouraged to look back if necessary when they meet obstacles in comprehending-- both in the classroom and in independent reading (Sanacore, 1984). They should be taught to (1) recognize that a failure has occurred, (2) decide whether or not to do something about the failure at that time, and (3) engage (conditional upon step two) in fixup activities which supply the prerequisite information (Alessi and others, 1979, p. 199).

Myth 6. Students with adequate reading skills automatically read and study textbook chapters effectively.

Adams and others (1982) conducted a study of 5th graders' use of study skills. These students possessed adequate decoding skills for reading a social studies textbook, but they had not acquired effective study skills. Three instructional groups of 15 students each were asked to read passages ranging from 600 to 800 words taken from a textbook not used by the students. Over a ten-week period, the treatment group received systematic instruction in a method based on Francis P. Robinson's (1962) SQ3R study technique, which engages students in five steps: survey, question, read, recite, and review. The other two groups engaged in independent study of the same passages-- one group receiving teacher feedback, and the other no instruction at all.

An analysis of the results indicated that on short answer tests, the treatment group performed significantly better than the other two groups. No significant difference was observed between the two independent study groups.

These findings indicate that students possessing adequate reading skills probably still need direct guidance in reading and studying textbook chapters. Especially needed is continuous support in transferring SQ3R (or another pertinent variation) to the actual materials being used. If learners apply such a method and then do well on textbook-related tests, they are more likely to use the technique frequently (Sanacore, 1982).

Summary

The scope of this chapter is limited to a brief discussion of six reading comprehension myths. Such myths are dangerous because they reflect misconceptions that can affect reading instruction negatively. By increasing an awareness of these and other misconceptions, teachers and administrators can avoid them when carrying out practices to improve students' understanding of text.

Figure 1

Weaving Metaphor

Using aspects of Hansen's (1981) study, classroom teachers can generate prereading activities that are based on the following adapted version of the weaving metaphor:

> We understand new information best when we can weave it into old information already existing in our brains. ... each child [receives] two concrete devices: (1) a 9 by 12 inch ... sheet of gray paper to represent his or her brain and (2) three 9 by 3 inch ... strips of brightly colored paper to represent new knowledge. The piece of gray paper [is] cut in thirds lengthwise, with each cut extending three-fourths of the way into the paper. These cuts [create] three long flaps which [are] the same size as the strips of brightly colored paper. The [teacher selects] three important ideas from the story and [introduces] them one at a time via a two-step procedure. First, a question [is] asked which [relates] to some possible previous experiences of the children, and, second, the children [are] required to hypothesize something similar that might happen in the story. After oral responses to the first question, the children [record] their own experiences on the first flap of their "brains." Then hypotheses pertaining to the story [are] discussed, and each child [writes] his or her hypothesis on one of the colored strips. This procedure [is] repeated with two questions for each of the other two important ideas. Also, at each session the strategy of relating the new to the known [is] reviewed as an abstract concept. As a follow-up activity, the children [weave] the colored strips into their "brains" (pp. 400-01).

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Chapter 8

Independent Reading: A Complement to Any Reading Program

Independent Reading

Schoolwide Efforts

Vocabulary and Comprehension through Independent Reading: Considerations for Teacher Modeling

Vocabulary and Independent Reading

Using Modeling to Support Context

Summary

References

Independent Reading: A Complement to Any Reading Program

The literature of the field has dealt extensively with traditional reading programs. The uses and abuses of basal readers, for example, have demonstrated a variety of concerns ranging from positive to negative. In this chapter, we focus on independent reading, an innovation that complements virtually any traditional reading program.

Independent Reading

Independent reading is important to the total reading program because it supports the theme that children learn to read by reading. It also promotes the lifetime habit of reading.

Unfortunately, educators in the United States are so involved with teaching reading that they frequently neglect to give children opportunities to read. Although teaching certain skills is important, it should not preclude guiding learners to read for pleasure.

According to Hillerich, independent reading provides experiences that are necessary for reading at mature levels. "Even (the) best teachers of reading are wasting their time teaching children how to read if, in the process, they are not helping them want to read and actually getting them to read" (1983, p. 99). Supporting this position, Hillerich recommends that independent reading receive equal time with the formal skill or basal component of the school reading program.

Regrettably educational leaders often view reading as a frivolous activity that is of use only after skills have been taught. Reinforcing this narrow perspective are state competency requirements which have pressured administrators into limiting the scope of language arts programs to accommodate these external mandates.

Students are required to complete standardized achievement tests selected by schools, and college-bound teenagers are expected to compete successfully with the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) or The American College Testing Program (ACT). Results are usually published in newspapers, suggesting that the worth of the schools is a matter of how well their students score on these instruments. Since parents and boards of education are generally interested in the published results, it is not surprising that many principals have narrowed their perceptions of what is essential in the curriculum.

To combat this limited view, those interested in good testing results must continuously be reminded that although productive outcomes are important, they are only one indication of a successful program. If this is articulated properly, pressure groups will realize that exposing students to skills is useless unless the students immerse themselves in books.

Other points to be made in favor of independent reading are that it helps students to build prior knowledge of topics, to apply learned skills to actual text (narrative, descriptive, expository), to expand reading interests, and most importantly to develop a longterm love of reading.

This articulation can take place in a variety of settings, including Parent-Teacher-Student Association (PTSA) meetings, open house gatherings, curriculum orientations, parent-teacher conferences, and coffee klatches.

Schoolwide Efforts

When the administrator, staff, parents, and board members are convinced that independent reading has a positive place in the school program, strategies should be carried out that underscore the worth of independent reading throughout the school (Sanacore, 1988). The four suggestions presented in this chapter are not complete, but they do support the theme of getting students to read.

1. Provide worthwhile staff development

The principal, department supervisors, and volunteers from the content area teaching staff work as a team in planning, implementing, and evaluating inservice activities. This team undertakes activities such as determining needs assessment techniques and interpreting the results to the faculty. If the need for independent reading is determined, the team develops a structure which typically includes goals and related objectives, activities, and evaluation procedures (Otto and Erickson, 1973). For example:

- Identify needs: to increase teachers' awareness of independent reading and ways of getting young people to read a diversity of materials in different contexts.
- Set a goal: to increase teachers' knowledge of independent reading and to help them devise strategies that will guide students to use independent reading in different content areas.

- State objectives: (a) to identify aspects of independent reading (classroom library and central library) and to apply them to content area classrooms, (b) to select materials that have merit for independent reading , and (c) to employ teaching techniques that will motivate students to use independent reading in the subject areas.

- Select activities to attain objectives:

(a) The workshop presenter lectures on the importance of the classroom and central libraries and on how they satisfy a need for availability of books. Included in this lecture is the leadership role of the principal in guiding the school librarian to serve as a major resource for the reading program (Hillerich, 1983).

(b) The workshop participants review a variety of materials. During a group discussion, the teachers may observe that certain materials are more appropriate for problem readers while others are useful for average readers. The participants may read and discuss ideas from monographs published by the International Reading Association: Alfred J. Ciani's Motivating Reluctant Readers, John E. Cowen's Teaching Reading through the Arts, Nancy Roser and Margaret Frith's Children's Choices: Teaching with Books Children Like, Randall J. Ryder, Bonnie B. Graves and Michael F. Graves' Easy Reading: Book Series and Periodicals for Less Able Readers, and Dixie Lee Spiegel's Reading for Pleasure: Guidelines. In addition, the National Council of Teachers of English has recently published a poignant source by Robert G. Carlsen and Anne Sherrill entitled Voices of Readers: How We

Come to Love Books, while the Yale University Press has recently produced a profound, in-depth work by Victor Nell entitled Lost in a Book: The Psychology of Reading for Pleasure. Besides reviewing these sources, teachers are given opportunities to generate lists of materials that are especially useful for their subject areas.

(c) Lectures, demonstrations, discussions, recordings, and other inservice activities help the participants gain insights about motivating students to read independently. Motivational considerations include building independent reading into the content area schedule, encouraging self selection of materials, providing time for students to share reading experiences, serving as reading models during independent reading rather than being seen doing clerical tasks, and extending independent reading into the home (Sanacore, 1983).

- Evaluate results: The success of this staff development is determined in a number of ways, including teacher responses, performance tests, and observations verifying that the insights gained about independent reading are benefiting students in content area classrooms. The main reason for evaluation is to judge the degree to which the objectives and ultimately the goals are attained; however, evaluation also helps the inservice team to make decisions about future workshops.

This inservice structure is adapted from Otto and Erickson (1973), Sanacore (1982), and Shanker (1982). It supports the cooperative roles of the principal, supervisors, and staff as they attempt to encourage students to read. More on inservice education is provided in our chapter "Variations on the Inservice Theme."

2. Use independent reading to promote creative reading

One of the many positive suggestions that may be discussed during staff development is the link between independent reading and creative reading. This link is natural because self selection of materials establishes the foundation for personal responses. In addition, this approach provides more opportunities for individuals to read at their own comfortable pace and to reflect on the content of their selections.

During this reflection, students are more likely to become personally involved with their books. The teacher gives support by posing questions that require readers to go beyond the author's ideas and then by helping the learners to ask similar questions on their own (Hillerich, 1983; Sanacore, 1986; Smith and Robinson, 1980).

For example, the teacher might ask "How would you have solved this problem?" Imaginative responses represent beginning stages of inquiry, so they are encouraged and praised often. As students develop confidence with their creative reactions, the teacher guides them to ask their own questions that help them actively create meaning as they read.

One way of expanding on this approach is to motivate students to develop additional questions that stimulate personal, creative responses. Adapting a structure devised by Donlan and Singer (1979), the teacher can model questions like the following:

- **The leading character:** If I were the leading character, what action would I have initiated? Why?
- **The goal:** What would I have strived for? What would I have learned about myself from the goal chosen and from the course of action taken?
- **The obstacles:** How would I have dealt with the obstacles? What would I have learned about myself from the ways in which I dealt with these obstacles?
- **The outcome:** Would I have been successful or unsuccessful in reaching the goal? Why?
- **The theme:** From the goal, obstacles, and outcome, what forces would I have struggled with (for example, myself, nature, other people)?

As learners show readiness for developing and responding to these types of questions, the teacher moves from modeling to providing practice. When students begin to demonstrate independence, the teacher monitors continuity in using the process.

Independent reading in the content areas is a useful approach for encouraging continuity in self questioning. It allows students to select a wide variety of materials, to read and reflect on the content of their selections, and to actually apply some of the self questioning strategies discussed above.

Although these strategies are easily applied to narrative text, they can be adapted to expository and descriptive writing. For example, during reading, students can create and answer personal questions such as:

- If I were the author, how would I have approached the problem? What would I have learned about myself from my approach to the problem?
- What difficulties would I have experienced in dealing with the problem? How would I have dealt with these difficulties? What would I have learned about myself from the ways in which I dealt with these difficulties?
- Would I have been successful or unsuccessful in dealing with the problem? Why?
- Beyond these experiences, what additional challenges would I have encountered as the author (for instance, my personal lifestyle versus the problem to be researched)?

These types of questions promote thinking at different levels while readers apply their emotional and intellectual backgrounds to varied types of writing. Students may elaborate on an author's ideas, suggest original ways of dealing with an author's thesis, and synthesize concepts from a variety of sources into a broader, related concept (namely, the author's main thesis). Thus, independent reading blended with personal questions and responses can help students better understand and appreciate different texts, as these developing independent readers go beyond the literal, interpretive, and critical levels of comprehension.

A caution, however, is not to require excessive questioning, since overdoing this process could negate the principles of independent reading. Rather, teachers should motivate students to read for pleasure and, at times, to apply their creative reading strategies. In addition, the teacher might encourage individuals to share their creative insights during peer group discussions of books. For more discussion about independent or recreational reading in the content areas, see Sanacore (1983) and Spiegel (1981).

Principals, supervisors, and teachers who maintain these insights generate a sense that reading is more than basic skill development. Additionally, this broader view of comprehension shows a respect for students' personal approaches to reading, thereby motivating individuals to be greater risk takers in selecting books and in responding to them.

Educational leaders can favorably influence these practices through faculty and department meetings, informal observations, and formal evaluations. Identifying and praising positive outcomes are among the best ways of nurturing the continuity of such behaviors.

3. Be ambitious about independent reading

Promoting the link between independent and creative reading is important, but it represents only one dimension of the total process. Principals, supervisors, and staff should also support broader efforts for independent reading.

Since the typical U. S. school year consists of four 10 week periods, ambitious teachers can provide about 5 weeks for independent reading in their subject areas. In this plan, the blocks of time allocated for independent reading are spaced throughout the school year (see Figure). A student's schedule, therefore, may show independent reading in English for the first 5 weeks and conventional instruction for the next 35 weeks. This student also may have independent reading in social studies for the second 5 weeks and regular instruction before and after that block of time. Thus, the reader is exposed to a wide variety of materials in the different subject areas, but, as important is involved with these resources continuously from September to June.

In addition, other curricular pressures are considered so that 5 weeks of independent reading give teachers and learners 35 weeks for other important activities. Even during the 10 week progress period when the teacher is supporting independent reading, there is still another 5 weeks to teach content, administer several quizzes, and record grades. Consequently, some of the difficulties related to perceived lack of time are lessened.

For this plan to be a success, classrooms must be organized as circulating minilibraries. At least 5 resources for each student should be available, and they should reflect a variety of interest and reading levels. They also should support major curriculum topics so that students are able to build their prior knowledge of pertinent content.

Another important aspect of this environment is the teacher serving as a reading model while the students are reading silently. If teachers correct tests of do other clerical tasks during reading time, they probably generate negative signals about the worth of reading. Everyone, therefore, should be reading silently.

At appropriate times, however, the teacher may want to vary the classroom routine by reading aloud sections of an interesting book, motivating individuals to talk about their books, encouraging students to serve as journalists for a classroom newspaper, or guiding learners in other worthwhile activities. (More variation concerning additional activities for teacher modeling is presented later in this chapter.)

Approaching independent reading on such a large scale may seem extreme, but it demonstrates a genuine commitment to this part of the school reading program. Remember, Hillerich strongly believes that "independent reading should be half of the total program in reading instruction" (1983, p. 100). A dedicated administrator and teaching staff at least will aim toward extending this philosophy to all content areas.

4. Be realistic about independent reading

Sometimes, the limitations of a school lessen the chances for schoolwide efforts. The teaching staff, the board of education, and the budget are only a few of the potential obstacles. Instead of accepting defeat, the principal can modify the plan to fit the needs of the school. This modification may include one or more of the following suggestions:

- Work with one department at a time until success is achieved, and then use similar approaches with other departments (Sanacore, 1983). The principal's key role is to coordinate the central library and the classroom minilibrary. A wide variety of books on instructional topics should be readily available so that students can fulfill unit requirements during the time devoted to independent reading.

One practical way of evaluating the worth of these efforts is to review the departmental grades and to compare periods of independent reading with periods of conventional instruction. If no significant difference exists or if grades are higher during independent reading, then the case for using this approach is supported.

On the other hand, the principal, supervisor, and teachers may observe that although grades decreased slightly during independent reading, the benefits of promoting the lifetime reading habit outweighed the short-term disadvantages of lower grades. Teachers who realize the value of independent reading might adjust their grading procedures so that students are not penalized for reading.

- Provide support for volunteers from different instructional areas. Similar to working with one department is the principal's effort to help interested teachers from other curricular areas. Again, securing appropriate materials is vital for the success of independent reading, but the principal could experience difficulty locating the diversity of resources needed for different subjects.

Planning a budget is one solution; however, some schools do not have funds for purchasing supplementary materials. Another approach is to contact the local public library and to establish a policy of borrowing books, ranging from scientific resources to young people's literature. To further support the need for materials, the principal can work with the parent association in sponsoring a community drive for securing magazines, booklets, fictional and nonfiction books, technical reports, and other print and nonprint media. When these arrive at the school, the principal and the teachers who initially volunteered for independent reading organize these sources according to instructional areas.

- Encourage the entire staff to explore ways of using independent reading. The busy schedule that teachers and students follow causes additional obstacles. Students are selected for pullout programs in computer literacy, gifted education, remedial reading, instrumental lessons, theater arts, and other areas. In addition, they are expected to attend physical education, have lunch, and become involved in extracurricular activities.

Although this diversity is supposed to enrich lives, too much can be counterproductive and can hinder efforts to promote the lifetime reading habit. Consequently, when supporting the use of independent reading, the principals should consider the daily pressures under which teachers and students function.

Spiegel provides worthwhile suggestions (1981). Although she focuses on recreational reading in the elementary school, her ideas are easily adapted for independent reading K-12. One of her recommendations is to revise certain practices and schedules so that semifree reading is incorporated into subject matter lessons. For example, the teacher may obtain materials for a temporary minilibrary which supports a current topic of study.

Then, the students could be permitted to read self selected materials on the topic during the last 10 minutes of each lesson.

Spiegel also suggests that teachers scrutinize the practice of requiring students to complete every activity mentioned in a workbook or teacher manual. If teachers stress only those exercises that are needed, then more time is available for selecting and reading books. Similarly, teachers need to question other routine practices, such as those in their weekly plans, and to find at least 10 minutes a day for independent reading.

Being realistic about independent reading is not accepting defeat. Instead, it suggests a keen awareness of a school's limitations and the wisdom of how to proceed. Educational leaders who realize the need for moving a step at a time may eventually observe the longterm benefits of their efforts.

Vocabulary and Comprehension through Independent Reading: Considerations for Teacher Modeling

These 4 guidelines help to establish a foundation for independent reading. A frequent pressure on educators, however, is how to incorporate important skills into students' actual reading. In this section, we focus on vocabulary and comprehension, their link to independent reading, and ways to encourage this link through teacher modeling.

Most educators would agree that vocabulary knowledge is a necessary part of reading comprehension. Teachers intuitively assume that students with extensive word knowledge are more likely to read with understanding and fluency. While realizing the importance of this relationship, teachers are often unsure about the best approaches and the amount of time and energy needed for effective instruction.

Part of this uncertainty lies in several seemingly contradictory findings. For example, students must have a varied and deep knowledge of vocabulary for effective comprehension of text. Yet, if teachers were to engage learners in intensive vocabulary instruction, this approach would not only be time consuming but also result in the learning of a minimal number of words. (Graves and Prenn, 1986; Herman and Dole, 1988) In fact, teachers who attempt explicit coverage of all new words in basal readers will probably teach less than 500 words each year. (Nagy and Herman, 1987) Since average students in grades 3-12 gain an awareness of about 3000 words per year (Nagy and Herman, 1987), apparently much vocabulary is learned incidentally through other means, such as the reading of school materials without direct instructional intervention. (Nagy, 1988; Nagy, et al., 1985a, 1985b) In addition, common sense suggests that too much emphasis on intensive teaching of word meanings may displace other important activities, including reading for pleasure.

Vocabulary and Independent Reading

These findings are not as contradictory as they are complementary, especially if teachers guide students to link vocabulary and independent reading. Although free reading is no guarantee that individuals will improve their vocabulary and comprehension, extensive reading provides three essential properties of vocabulary instruction: integration, repetition, and meaningful use. The essence of integration is that knowledge is structured by sets of relationships and that readers comprehend new information by relating it to their prior knowledge. Repetition is important because the more exposure and facility readers have with words the more attention they give to comprehension. Providing students with substantial exposure to new words, however, is especially effective if students use the words meaningfully. Thus, dealing with the words in context is more beneficial than merely defining the words in isolation.

Interestingly, independent reading that is frequent and extensive can support these properties of powerful vocabulary instruction. According to Nagy (1988, p. 31):

> Consider the first property, integration--the need to relate the meaning of a new word to students' prior knowledge. If the reader is largely successful in comprehending the text containing the new word, then the new word is being tied in with the reader's prior knowledge; most of the words and the concepts in the text are already at least partly familiar. As for repetition, whether reading supplies this for a new word depends on how much the student is reading and whether the new word is repeated. If the most important words for a student to learn are those that do occur repeatedly, reading will supply the necessary repetition. And of course in reading, one makes meaningful use of words. Reading is the best practice for reading.

One way of applying these characteristics to independent reading, is for administrators to encourage school time for reading a wide variety of books concerning instructional topics in the content areas. Thus, if the American Civil War is the unit being covered in social studies, then the classroom library should contain materials related to slavery, abolitionism, Abraham Lincoln, Jefferson Davis, General Ulysses S. Grant, General Robert E. Lee, the Union, the Confederacy, Fort Sumter, the Battle of Bull Run, and other pertinent areas. Students are more likely to read these resources if they are written at varied levels and if they consist of different lengths and formats (Sanacore, in press). At the completion of the unit, the teacher engages students in an active discussion of the American Civil War and places their comments on the chalkboard to form a post-reading semantic map. The reading experience and the semantic map can fulfill content area requirements, expand word knowledge, and support the lifetime reading habit. Frequent independent reading also supplies integration, repetition, and meaningful use.

Providing school time for reading, however, requires commitment and careful planning. Varied materials are needed for the classroom library, and they should be related to specific content area topics. The school library media specialist is a vital resource in working cooperatively with teachers to select appropriate materials. Based on the subject-matter demands and the teacher's flexibility, reading time is provided for significant blocks of time or for segments of class periods. For example, an ambitious approach would permit independent reading in a content area classroom for 5 weeks, with the remaining 35 weeks of the school year designated for other instructional activities. Conversely, the teacher can develop a temporary minilibrary which relates to a current topic of study, and students could self select and read materials concerning the topic during the last 10 minutes of each lesson. (These approaches were discussed previously.) Regardless of the time allocation, the teacher should serve as a reading model while students are engaged in silent reading (Sanacore, 1988; Spiegel, 1981).

Using Modeling to Support Context

At times, the teacher may vary the modeling of silent reading by demonstrating to students ways in which context plays a role in grasping the meaning of words. Using a passage being read, the teacher engages in contextual strategies while students follow along with a transparency or duplicated material. With administrative and supervisory support, modeling sessions could be organized to reveal the following:

1. **Certain words, phrases, sentences, and paragraphs help to determine the meaning of some new words and concepts.** The teacher thinks aloud as he/she attempts to grasp an awareness of a key word through its context. Here, the teacher notes that context may be helpful in making an inference concerning peripheral rather than explicit meaning. He/she also suggests that peripheral meaning is probably sufficient for understanding the whole selection. Then, the teacher

encourages students to use context while reading their self-selected books.

2. Reading whole selections increases an awareness that thorough knowledge of all words is unimportant. The teacher reads a passage aloud and indicates that he/she is unsure of certain word meanings. Then the teacher says, "Instead of trying to figure them out, I am going to put light marks by these words and to continue reading." At the completion of the selection, the teacher summarizes the author's ideas and discusses the marked words. "Do I know what these words are now?" "What about the words I am still unsure of?" "Are these important to understanding the selection?" The teacher then shows that many of the words he/she already knows incidentally, that some of the words still causing difficulty may or may not be necessary for understanding the passage, and that context is not always helpful in determining the meaning of new words. Decisions, therefore, have to be made, and approaches to gaining the meaning of some words have to be considered. These strategies reflect a variation of Vacca, Vacca, and Gove's (1987, p.217) suggestions to be used by students for word identification purposes. These strategies, however, can also be employed by teachers for modeling an awareness that knowing the meaning of all words in a selection is unnecessary for comprehension. After the modeling, students derive additional benefits from practicing with the teacher's guidance until they are able to use context discriminatingly and independently.

3. **Context can support other approaches to learning unfamiliar words independently**. The teacher carefully selects a passage with words consisting of prefixes, roots, and suffixes that do not reveal meaning on the basis of word structure. Nagy (1988, p.38) provides a striking example: "knowing that abs means 'away from' and tract means 'to draw, pull' is not likely to help a student encountering the word abstract for the first time." After selecting the passage, the teacher reads it aloud and attempts to determine the meaning of key words through their word parts. When this fails, context is used as another option or strategy for determining the word meanings. The teacher reminds students that although word structure is an important strategy for independent word learning, context is also useful and complementary especially when word parts do not provide clues to intended meanings. Students are then motivated to use context during independent reading as a support system for unlocking the meaning of words.

4. **For comprehension to occur, vocabulary and prior knowledge must interact**. According to Adams and Bruce (1982, p.23), "Without prior knowledge, a complex object, such as a text, is not just difficult to interpret; strictly speaking, it is meaningless." The classroom teacher can help students to activate their prior knowledge (or schemata) of a text by using a variation of a prereading plan referred to as PReP. (Langer, 1981) For example, the teacher thinks aloud indicating that before reading the book, he/she is going to

skim and become aware of the title and subtitles as well as the key words, phrases, and pictures. Then, the teacher says, "I am going to say anything that comes to my mind when I see the word ________________." For the purpose of clarification, responses are placed on the chalkboard. Afterward, the teacher says, "I want to think more deeply about these responses." Thus, certain words are weighed, accepted, revised, rejected, or integrated. Finally, the teacher says, "Based on these thoughts and before I read my book, do I have any new ideas about __________?" Here, more elaboration, revision, or refinement is noted. Although Langer's PReP is intended as a teacher-directed activity, appropriate teacher modeling can encourage students to use a variation for the purpose of integrating their prior knowledge with their self-selected text. As with other approaches that focus on context, guided practice is essential.

5. The intonation a reader brings to a text can affect the importance and meaning of words. Pitch, stress, and juncture are aspects of intonation that determine a reader's interpretation of text. Lefevre (1964, pp. 74-75) provides a classic example: "I did not say you stole my red bandanna." In this sentence, when the word I is highlighted, the implied meaning is "someone else said it." Conversely, when the word you is emphasized, the interpretation is likely to be "someone else stole it." The teacher can increase students' sensitivity to intonation by

demonstrating its use while reading aloud. Since intonational patterns are especially useful for interpreting dialogue, the teacher selects dialogues from a book and highlights specific words. The children are then challenged to make inferences about intended meanings and to apply this skill to their own books. Students also should have opportunities to practice the skill with different materials in varied content areas. Linking intonation with word meaning reflects one of the basic linguistic principles which views text as an implicit representation of speech. Students who are frequently exposed to this process gain important insights concerning the comprehension act.

These five modeling approaches support the role of context. Administrators and teachers, however, should be aware that these approaches are most effective when students believe they can imitate them and actually want to imitate them. (Schunk, 1987; Winograd and Paris, 1988-1989; Winograd and Smith, 1987) Teachers also should be cautious about overdoing modeling since it could displace independent reading and negate its philosophy. What is needed is a balance of encouraging wide and varied reading as much as possible and of using modeling at appropriate times in clear, demonstrative, and motivational ways.

SUMMARY

Independent reading is a necessary adjunct to a school reading program. If carried out with commitment, it can have a major impact on students' lifetime reading habits. However, with today's emphasis on competency testing and on other priorities, independent reading may become a lost art. Of help is the administrator's direct involvement in providing staff development, supporting the link between independent and creative reading, promoting schoolwide efforts, and being realistic about how to proceed. Educational leaders can also be of support by encouraging teacher modeling that links important skills to students' actual reading. This commitment suggests the need for an administrator who is knowledgeable, has courage, and relates well to teachers. Although the principal's leadership with independent reading is not a panacea, it can significantly affect the future literacy of our society.

Model of a Student's Yearlong Schedule That Includes Independent Reading

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	First Progress Period		Second Progress Period		Third Progress Period		Fourth Progress Period	
1. English	IR							
2. Social Studies		IR						
3. Physical Education			*					
4. Science				IR				
5. Mathematics					IR			
6. Lunch						*		
7. Foreign Language							IR	
8. Elective								IR

Note - Each box represents five weeks

IR - Independent Reading

☐ - Traditional Instruction

* - In this schedule, independent reading is not included in the areas of physical education and lunch, since physical education is offered twice a week and lunch is not an instructional period. These areas, however, are appropriately spaced so that no gap in free reading is longer than 5 weeks. Thus, the student experiences independent reading in all four 10-week progress periods.

This model is adapted from Joseph Sanacore, "How the Principal Can Promote Free Reading in the Content Areas," Journal of Reading, vol. 27 (December 1983), pp. 229-33.

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Chapter 9

Helping At-Risk Readers Achieve Fluency and Independence

Curricular Congruence

Sustained Silent Reading

Paired Repeated Reading

Maintenance of Reading Levels

Reading Recovery

Paired Reading

Summary

References

Helping At-Risk Readers Achieve Fluency and Independence

In the previous chapter, we discussed how independent reading can complement virtually any language arts program. We also indicated that providing school time for free reading can help students expand reading interests, build prior knowledge, apply skills to text, and establish a foundation for developing the lifetime reading habit.

A myth that continues to be perpetuated, however, is that children at risk of failure need skill instruction rather than contextual reading. According to Allington (1983, 1984), poor readers experience less text than good readers, and this difference in actual reading time may contribute to the difference in achievement between these two groups. Allington (1977) also argues in favor of increased reading during instruction for less able readers.

The building principal is a key player in promoting independent reading for at-risk students. Initially, he or she should articulate a strong belief in independent reading to students, teachers, parents, and board of education members. While demonstrating a concern for skill development and for state competency testing requirements, the principal focuses on a commitment to freeing children to read in school. Gradually, reasonable people begin to ralize that students in general and problem learners in particular cannot become proficient readers unless they have frequent opportunities to immerse themselves in text. With such a belief firmly grounded, the administrator can take steps toward supporting independent reading for less able readers.

Curricular Congruence

One of the first steps to be considered is to establish curricular congruence between the learning center and the classroom, especially if special instruction is not provided in the regular classroom. Briefly described, curricular congruence supports the need for stronger links in both at-risk and classroom settings so that the content and strategies used for poor readers are similar. Otherwise, at-risk students who need less quantity and more reinforcement of cohesive instruction may actually be exposed to many fragmented exercises that are unrelated to the classroom focus (Allington, Boxer, and Broikou, 1987; Allington and Shake, 1986; Allington, Stuetzel, Shake, and Lamarche, 1986; Johnston, Allington, and Afflerbach, 1985; Sanacore, in press).

For example, the classroom teacher may be activating students' prior knowledge of concepts in a basal story; meanwhile, the learning center teacher may be stressing computer assisted instruction for grammar, spelling, vocabulary or other skills that do not support the basal story. Consequently, the poor readers are receiving too much potentially confusing instruction and also are experiencing minimal opportunities to read connected text.

Administrators and superviors can work toward correcting this problem by not only articulating a belief in curricular congruence but also relating it in feasible ways to independent reading (see Figure). Adapting guidelines developed by Sanacore (in press), the educational leader:

1. Schedules mutual planning time or arranges specific meetings so that both learning center and classroom teachers have an updated understanding of how students are approaching independent reading in both settings.

2. Encourages teachers to observe contextual reading activities in both environments.

3. Motivates remedial and classroom staff to use substantial instructional time for teacher-directed silent reading.

4. Supports the use of similar materials in both settings. Materials include content area textbooks, resources highlighting skills that are easily transferable, and workbooks with passages stressing comprehension.

5. Rewards teachers with formal recognition for using independent reading to complement the core instructional program. Such recognition can take place through observation reports, annual evaluations, "genuine" and specific letters of appreciation, and citations at faculty meetings.

6. Provides staff development workshops that focus on strategies for linking curricular congruence and independent reading.

Sustained Silent Reading

When congruence has been feasibly associated with contextual reading, the principal continues guiding the staff in refining approaches that help students develop reading fluency. Sustained silent reading (McCracken, 1971) is one such approach that allows students to select materials in which they are interested and to read silently at their own comfortable rates. Reading time is provided in a structured context as individuals enjoy their selections for a designated period of time with no interruptions. Rahter than correct papers or do other clerical tasks, the teacher models positive behavior by reading silently with the students.

For SSR to be a success, learning centers and classrooms (or library corners) must be well-stocked with a wide variety of materials. Trade books, content area textbooks, magazines, comics, and student-produced materials should be available. At-risk students are more likely to read these materials if they are written at varied levels, especially the students' independent levels as determined by an informal reading inventory. According to Harris (1978, p. 920), students "in a remedial program seem to gain more from a large amount of easy reading than from a smaller amount of challenging reading." Harris also suggests that individuals should be able to read these materials with about 95% correct word recognition.

One of the many benefits of SSR is that it helps students to perceive an important message that reading is a worthwhile activity everybody can do (McCracken and McCracken, 1978). This message has special meaning for poor readers since they can make mistakes without worrying because no one is watching (Vacca, Vacca, and Gove, 1987). Thus, they can engage in more risk-taking as they pursue reading fluency.

Although sustained silent reading is beneficial to both good and poor readers, it is meant to supplement rather than to supplant other necessary aspects of the reading program. May (1986, p. 263) provides an appropriate caution:

> As much as I want to encourage the use of an SSR program, however, I should caution you not to consider it a panacea. It's not some kind of cure-all; it's just a good supplement to a strong instructional program in interactive reading.

May (1986, p. 263) also believes that

> Poor readers need a great deal of guided as well as independent reading. Some of this guided reading should be oral, some silent. In either case, the teacher should be directly involved in asking questions, clarifying meanings, and showing the children the cues available to them, both from the author and from their own schematic background. Furthermore, poor readers need more help than other children in selecting interesting and easy books to read on their own.

These thoughts should be helpful to administrators, supervisors, and teachers as they work toward including independent reading in a well-balanced instructional program. Certainly, at-risk readers will benefit from direct instruction and from guidance in applying newly gained insights to contextual reading. These individuals also may need initial help when selecting books for pleasure reading. Such support, however, should not be overdone since even poor readers need experience developing their own metacognitive awareness and control of the reading act. Allowing some risk-taking demonstrates to students that adults have respect for their personal choices and personal approaches to reading. Consequently, these less able readers will probably develop more self-confidence in selecting materials and in responding to them (Sanacore, 1988).

Paired Repeated Reading

Another strategy that provides at-risk readers with opportunities for contextual reading is paired repeated reading (Koskinen and Blum, 1986). This adaptation of repeated reading has the potential for improving students' oral fluency and comprehension (Koskinen and Blum, 1984) and thus deserves the principal's considertion.

Typically, each student in the regular classroom works with a partner from the reading group. Individuals choose a short passage of about 50 to 75 words from material currently being used. After reading their passages silently, they decide cooperatively who will be the first to read orally. Then, the first child reads aloud his/her passage three times and, after every oral reading, responds to the question: How well did you read? Meanwhile, the partner listens attentively and, after the second and third reading, provides the reader with positive feedback. Afterward, the individuals switch roles (Koskinen and Blum, 1986).

To assure success with paired repeated reading, the classroom teacher introduces and models the strategy while focusing on the roles of reader and listener. The teacher also reinforces the strategy through supervised practice and continues supporting it by 1. guiding students to select short, interesting passages so that both listener and reader are attentive; 2. providing resources that are matched with students' independent reading level, thereby increasing the chances of fluency; 3. encouraging active listening by having the listener focus on positive comments on improvement; and 4. providing guidelines for cooperative learning, including taking turns and monitoring the purpose of the task.

The administrator or supervisor can support paired repeated reading in a variety of ways. During classroom observations, he or she assists several pairs of students, if necessary, to facilitate the role of reader and listenter. During post-observation conferences, the educational leader compliments teachers' efforts in using the strategy, offers pertinent suggestions for refining it, and seeks teachers' feedback for expanding its use. The principal also encourages teachers to discuss paired repeated reading at faculty meetings. Such efforts reinforce to the staff that fluent reading is an important goal for all students, including remedial learners, and that schoolwide support is needed and expected.

Maintenance of Reading Levels

Another intervention strategy that supports reading fluency is referred to as maintenance of reading levels (Phipps and Nielsen, 1987). Introduced in Denmark, this approach stresses aspects of curricular congruence, whereby basals used in the regular classroom also are adhered to in the special reading course. At-risk children selected for special instruction meet with the reading teacher for 2 hours of daily instruction during a 10-week period. Each group is limited to five children, and they are selected for maintenance, not for remediation. Some of the daily activities include: engaging in oral practice of words and sentences that caused difficulty in the regular classroom; copying passages on widely lined paper and reading the passages to the teacher; noting and discussing errors or miscues from oral reading of the text; and reading assigned pages to parents at home until the passages are read fluently. Again the main purpose of this approach is to help at-risk children maintain comparable reading levels with peers in the regular classroom. According to Phipps and Nielsen (1987, p. 602), "it is commitment, organization, cooperation, and a clearly identifiable method which produce the fine results of 15-50% increase in reading levels for the Danish children who take this course." Although the United States cannot match the homogeneity of Denmark, maintenance of reading levels (or an adaptation) has potential for providing American children with opportunities to develop reading fluency within a relaxed, supportive environment.

Reading Recovery

Similar in intent to the maintenance concept is reading recovery, which was developed by Marie Clay of New Zealand (Clay, 1985; Boehnlein, 1987). At-risk first graders are identified and given intensive instruction to improve their reading performance. Children meet with a trained reading recovery teacher for 30 minutes of daily instruction for about 15-20 weeks. The main goal of this program is to help children become independent readers so that they can learn comparably with classmates in the regular classroom. To accomplish this goal, the reading recovery teacher accelerates instruction through daily one-on-one lessons. Each child's program is individually developed, carefully monitored, and specifically sequenced. Within this context, the first graders are initially exposed to activities, such as observing the teacher modeling fluent reading and then reading short, easy books for the purpose of developing their own fluency. Afterward, the children engage in the rereading of easy books, in the writing of a story using natural langauge, and in other well-structured activities aimed at achieving independence.

The success of reading recovery is predicated on intensive teacher training. A one-year inservice program is conducted by a teacher leader, who also serves as a follow-up resource for the participating school. To demonstrate support for this innovation, the principal becomes involved with selecting personnel to be trained as reading recovery teachers. He or she also encourages classroom teachers and parents to attend the sessions so that they can provide congruent support in advancing children's reading performance. Finally the administrator facilitates the role of the teacher leader during the follow-up phase.

Thus far, reading recovery appears to be a success. Longitudinal research findings suggest that the vast majority of children in the program are able to perform comparably with average and above average readers in the regular classroom (Clay, 1985). Successful outcomes also were observed in Ohio, the first American state to demonstrate a comprehensive commitment to reading recovery (Boehnlein, 1987; Huck and Pinnell, 1985; Pinnell, 1986). Remarkably, most of the reading recovery children not only maintained their reading gains but also did not require remedial support again. This finding, by itself, should give administrators the impetus to investigate the usefulness of this innovation for a particular school.

Paired Reading

In the United Kingdom, paired reading is an effective method for involving parents with their children's reading (Topping, 1987). This approach is not primarily intended for readers at risk of failing, but it has value for preventing potential failures. Currently, it is being used successfully with children between 6 and 13 years of age, and it also is being extended to the level of adult literacy. Paired reading is designed for parents and their children in the home environment. The child selects reading material based on his or her interests and begins reading the source. If the text is difficult, the child and parent read aloud together until the child makes an error. After 5 seconds, the adult says the word until the child reads it correctly. This immediate support lessens the child's anxiety. For easier text, the child nonverbally signals to the parent to be quiet, while he or she reads independently. When an error is made, the correction strategy is repeated, and both adult and child read together again. According to Topping (1987, p.609), "There is much emphasis throughout on praise for correct reading, self-correction, and signalling to read alone."

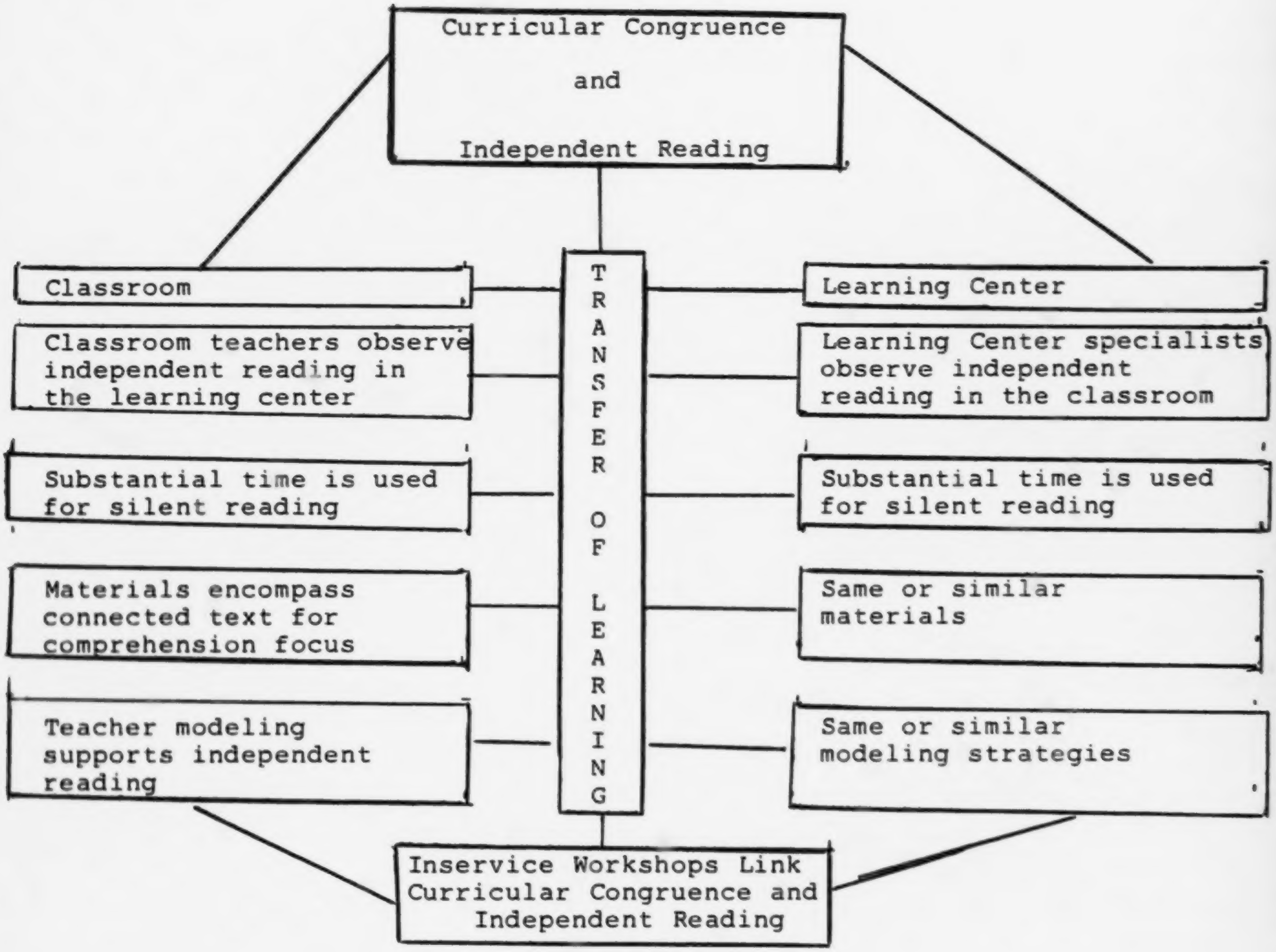
An essential aspect of paired reading is orienting teachers and training parents about the method. Topping (1986b) produced a video training pack from which teachers can gain insights as well as practice them with cooperative children. Thus, teachers are fully aware of the method. For economic reasons, parents and children are trained together at a group meeting. A short lecture and written materials are combined with a demonstration of paired reading. Then, the parents and children practice the method and recieve feedback. Afterward, the technique is used at home for an "initial period of commitment" ranging from 6-8 weeks. Finally, the "intensive phase of the project" is implemented which involves monitoring parents and children practicing the method.

For this innovation to be carried out successfully, the administrator's support is necessary. Coordinating efforts concerning the various levels of orientation is a primary leadership responsibility. In addition, the principal may decide that although paired reading is used mostly in the home, it can be adapted to the school. In this context, at-risk children are identified and provided with intensive one-on-one instruction in the learning center. Each child is matched with a reading teacher, a special education teacher, or an older student tutor. Paired reading takes place about 30 minutes each day (based on the child's attending ability). The child selects reading materials independently and reads difficult and easy text, using similar strategies discussed above. The building principal monitors this adaptation and also encourages parents to observe their children in the learning center. Consequently, they are in a better position to reinforce paired reading at home.

Thus far, research findings are supportive of this method (Topping, 1986a, 1987; Topping and Wolfendale, 1985). Children engaged in paired reading make significant progress in reading accuracy and in reading comprehension. In addition, parents' subjective responses to questionnaires suggest that the vast majority of their children involved in paired reading not only were reading more materials but also were reading more diversity of sources. These parents also reported an increase in enthusiasm, confidence, and other related areas.

Summary

In supporting independent reading, the educational leader can make a major difference in the lives of children's literacy development. Initially, curricular congruence should be established so that learning center staff and classroom teachers mutually support the use of school time for developing students' fluency. In addition, sustained silent reading, paired repeated reading, maintenance of reading levels, reading recovery, and paired reading are five suggested strategies for preventing, or at least lessening, at-risk students' increased potential for failure. By focuing on prevention, the teacher wisely aims toward helping these children before they already have failed repeatedly, have developed low academic self-concepts, and have actually grown to dislike reading. Such preventive efforts can lessen much of the negative impact of remediation as they encourage both fluency and the lifetime reading habit.


Curricular Congruence
and
Independent Reading
TRANSFER OF LEARNING
Classroom
Classroom teachers observe independent reading in the learning center
Substantial time is used for silent reading
Materials encompass connected text for comprehension focus
Teacher modeling supports independent reading
Learning Center
Learning Center specialists observe independent reading in the classroom
Substantial time is used for silent reading
Same or similar materials
Same or similar modeling strategies
Inservice Workshops Link Curricular Congruence and Independent Reading

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Chapter 10

Future Directions: Developing Lifetime Literacy through Independent Reading in the Schools

Today's Society: A Brief Perspective

What Can Schools Do?

Summary

References

Future Directions: Developing Lifetime Literacy through Indpendent Reading in the Schools

In the last several chapters, we focused on the importance of supporting independent reading in the schools. We presented a leadership perspective for implementing this innovation, and we suggested administrative and supervisory approaches to helping at-risk readers achieve fluency and independence. Our intent has been to guide educational leaders to generate experiences that provide students with immediate literacy benefits and that create within them the lifetime reading habit. This thrust is more essential today than at any other time in U.S. history, and it probably will continue to be of major importance in the future. Because of societal pressures, the need to promote and sustain independent reading in the schools is greater than ever.

Today's Society: A Brief Perspective

Each year, students enter classrooms and focus on related activities and assignments. For many of these children, school routine means emphasizing the basics which usually translates into reading basal reader stories in ability groups, completing isolated workbook exercises, and becoming involved in other fragmented activities. At this time, we would like the reader to be aware that we are not against basal readers; in fact, our observations suggest that basals have improved in a variety of areas, including, better literature selections, more varied subject matter, and less stereotyping of characters. Regrettably, basals and their related materials are often used rigidly rather than employed in a balanced context of skill development, strategy usage, and book immersion.

The goal of immersing children in interesting, meaningful books, however, is difficult to attain because dominant forces either prevent or lessen opportunities for reading independently and extensively in schools (Sanacore, 1988). Foremost is the competency testing frenzy that pressures administrators and teachers into viewing the language arts curriculum from a narrow perspective, thereby highlighting classroom instruction that relates directly to testing outcomes. In New York State, for instance, students are expected to reach specific reference points with the following language arts tests:

Third grade: Pupil Evaluation Program in Reading
Fifth grade: Writing Test for New York State Elementary Schools
Sixth grade: Pupil Evaluation Program in Reading
Eighth or ninth grade (optional): Preliminary Competency Tests in Reading and Writing
Eleventh grade: Regents Competency Tests in Reading and Writing or the Comprehensive Examination in English (optional for students pursuing a Regents Diploma)

Added to this list of requirements are testing mandates in mathematics as well as Regents Action Plan assessments in other content areas.

Compounding these problems are demographic trends that generate greater need for school support of independent reading. The home context is much different today than it was two decades ago. More career-oriented parents, a higher divorce rate, and more single-parent households are only a few of the trends that have created disruptions in children's lives. Furthermore, child care is largely mediocre, primarily because of low pay causing high staff turnover. Thus, children who generally thrive on consistency and stability are exposed to different child care workers with varied expectations and styles. If these patterns are as dominant as they appear to be, then schools are faced with the formidable challenge of implementing programs that prevent, or at least lessen, children's increased potential for failure. Providing opportunities for free reading during the school day is a qualitative way of filling a literacy gap for children, a gap that is likely to widen if unattended over a period of time.

This support is vital because "latch-key" children leave school each day and enter homes with no adult supervision. At the least, they succumb to questionable habits, such as watching too much television, spending too much time on the telephone, and engaging too much energy on other social activities. Minimal effort seems to be expended on the thought-provoking, self-disciplined, and pleasure-oriented task of reading. These children, therefore, lose the immediate benefit of improving their reading performance through daily exposure to reading. As important, they lose the longterm value of developing the habit of reading.

These negative outcomes can lead to higher illiteracy and school dropout rates. Depending on who is defining illiteracy, the United States has between 27 million and 72 million illiterates, and these estimated figures are among the highest of industrialized nations in the world. Added to this dilemma is the unusually high dropout rate in American schools, especially in inner cities. Such pessimistic trends strongly suggest that educators must improve their approaches to preventing, identifying, and remedying young people's communication difficulties. Failure to meet this challenge will result in a lifetime of frustration for these potential illiterates and for the society in which they attempt to function.

What Can Schools Do?

The competency testing movement, the demographic changes, and the increasing illiteracy and school dropout rates have caused a variety of pressures in young people's lives. Unfortunately, these pressures probably will remain and will continue to detract from students' immediate and future learning. Consequently, schools are confronted with two choices: (1) continue on their present course and thereby contribute to the negative aspects of the societal trends or (2) realize that today's trends are going to remain and that schools themselves must respond in major ways. This latter choice reflects sensitivity, but to be effective, it must also be substantive. Thus, in responding to the problem, educational leaders should consider implementing lasting innovations that guide students to become independent, successful learners. Although highlighting independent reading in the schools is not a panacea, it is a positive step toward helping students develop lifetime literacy. The challenge for administrators and teachers, then, is not only to initiate independent reading but also to sustain or institutionalize this innovation.

By definition, institutionalization refers to innovations that become a durable part of the school program. They manage to continue "by somehow getting 'built in' to the life of the school" (Miles, 1983). Educational leaders are key players in supporting the duration of worthwhile ideas and therefore can be active forces in seeing that these innovations are "built in" to school programs. Specifically, what can administrators and supervisors do? The following suggestions are not comprehensive, but they do provide some insight and direction for implementing independent reading on a longterm basis.

1. Consider independent reading in the context of remedying school problems.

Since most innovations are aimed at remedying school problems, administrators should determine the local problems and should discuss specific ways of solving them. This approach lessens the chances of implementing fashionable ideas whose short life spans have little pertinence to a school's problems. Tanner (1983) provides a striking example of an innovation not fitting a school context. In 1969, the Ford Foundation attempted to apply aspects of the British open classroom to the American inner-city school system. All the optimistic reports about the beneficial aspects of the British programs convinced many American educators that it was the answer to their problems, despite the lack of carefully controlled studies. The open classroom concept reflected less structure which apparently was well-matched to the needs of British children. This concept, however, led to disappointing results, particularly with American inner-city children who generally needed more direct guidance.

This experience from history (as well as others) supports an argument for linking innovations to specific problem solving. Administrators and teachers can provide such a link at meetings of the Language Arts Curriculum Council, the Principal's Advisory Council, or other professional groups. The beginning focus of these meetings is to clarify the school problem and to suggest solutions in the context of research findings. Fortunately, if the problem concerns the negative impact of societal trends on students' learning, and if the solution considers the systematic development of independent reading, then research to support this thrust is readily available. For example, Morrow (1982) found that children who read independently each day performed significantly better than control groups in both vocabulary and comprehension. Similarly, Lamme (1976) found that children who were exposed to pleasurable books had a greater desire to read. These and other studies provide support for independent reading, but this innovation is more likely to be implemented and sustained if it is linked to curriculum development, budget, staffing, facilities, inservice education, and evaluation. Limitations such as time needed for researchng the problem and for training key personnel also should be discussed at professional meetings. These considerations set the stage for bringing about a lasting independent reading program that fits the school environment.

2. Be aware of complex factors that are necessary for program durability.

Beyond identifying a problem and suggesting solutions, sustaining an independent reading program involves other efforts. Regrettably, these efforts are complex especially as they relate to different school settings. Miles (1983) attempts to clarify this problem by presenting four scenarios based on a study of twelve elementary and secondary schools. (Crandall and associates, 1982; Huberman and Miles, 1982) Although the processes he describes do not relate to independent reading, the approaches to implementation could easily apply.

The more effective scenario consisted of the following factors: a district office administrator applied substantial pressure on educators to carry out a newly developed reading program. This mandated strategy first lowered the educators' commitment, but considerable assistance was provided which upgraded their competence with the innovation as well as their subsequent cooperation. In addition, organizational changes were made, including teacher teaming, pupil rotation, and scheduling. These factors generated more use of the innovation and resulted in a lasting program. "The general picture is one of administrative decisiveness, accompanied by enough assistance to increase user skill, ownership, and stable use in the context of a stable system." (Miles, 1983, p. 18)

A second successful scenario avoided the mandating of the innovation. Instead, it focused on assisting the educators and building their commitment. The emphasis was on cooperative problem solving and suggestions for implementing the program. The professional staff shared responsibility for making important decisions.

These two scenarios were the most effective in promoting lasting innovations. Even though problems had developed, stability was maintained.

3. Prevent potential crises that could have a negative impact on the innovation.

Job mobility and environmental turbulence are two potential crises that could threaten the longterm quality of independent reading. The former problem concerns educators moving on to new positions either because of career advancement or funding cuts; the latter problem concerns declining student enrollment and budget cuts. Since a successful independent reading program depends on a wide variety of resources, a consistently dependable budget is needed for classroom library corners and related furniture, story books, magazines, comics, content area textbooks, movie stories, filmstrips, and other important materials. Building administrators and classroom teachers must impress upon district office staff the importance of maintaining a budget item that is protected against future cuts. (Loucks and Zacchei, 1983) Preventive strategies also include providing opportunities for many individuals to share their competence and responsibility. For example, in one successful school where an innovation was carried out, "the decision to create a districtwide management group for the innovation, involving both teachers and administrators, nurtured stability even though the principal and the coordinator were both leaving." (Miles, 1983, p. 19) Consequently, these structural and procedural changes significantly protected the innovation against potential threats, and these factors should be considered during the implementation of an independent reading program.

4. Use feasible approaches that increase the chances of successfully maintaining the innovation.

In sustaining a quality independent reading program, a major factor is strong cooperation that is specifically and continuously related to all phases of implementation. Administrators and teachers are the key players who can stabilize the innovation by directing it toward solving school problems, by providing substantial assistance to all concerned personnel, and by eliminating or lessening threats to durability. Since the most successful scenario (discussed previously) represents a mandated use of ideas, such an approach may be controversial and ineffective. Some schools, for instance, may be staffed with a large number of unionized, mid-life professionals who may resist an authoritarian approach. An alternative strategy would focus on building commitment for the innovation and on sharing responsibility for implementing it. Thus, the staff develops a greater sense of ownership and is more likely to give support over a period of time. Berman and McLaughlin (1978), Lipham (1980), Samuels (1988), Sanacore (1989a, 1989b), and Sanacore and Rauch (1986) stress the importance of administrators and teachers sharing responsibility during the implementation of innovations. According to Samuels (1988, p. 4):

> When goals and methods requiring significant teacher investment of time and energy come from the central office staff without shared input from teachers, the district can expect teachers to resist program implementation. When teachers and administrators work together to establish goals and methods, schools are successful in instituting planned change.

During the past two decades, we have been involved with a team of consultants in carrying out a variety of language arts innovations at school districts. (Sanacore and Rauch, 1986) One of these lasting innovations concerns efforts to promote lifetime readers. Applying characteristics from a content area model Sanacore, 1983), the school district approached independent or free reading.

from a braod perspective. Although this program does not represent all aspects of the previous discussion, it does reflect a feasible application of certain attributes in the discussion.

Initially, the services of the consulting team were sought because the professional staff was sensing a lessening of community support for school programs. A representative committee of administrators and teachers believed that problems in the community were growing and, consequently, were hindering the school district's efforts to teach effectively. The consulting team worked with the district committee in conducting a demographic-type study for both community and staff members. The purpose of the study was to determine if subjective perceptions of the problems were linked to specific findings. The results of surveys, interviews, and observations indicated: (1) an unusually high divorce rate, (2) many single parents were employed full-time, (3) many parents were unavailable for parent-teacher conferences, (4) an increasing number of school dropouts, and (5) a high percentage of failures on the state competency tests which pressured administrators and teachers into focusing on isolated skills that directly matched the testing requirements.

After analyzing the results, the team of consultants and committee of administrators and teachers made recommendations for improvement. One of these recommendations emphasized the need for building lifetime literacy through schoolwide independent reading. This approach, among others, was considered to be important because the professional staff believed it could support this literacy experience on a daily basis and, thus, could lessen some of the negative trends affecting students' lives. The staff also believed that encouraging independent reading increases the potential for applying skills to actual text, for expanding reading interests, for building prior knowledge (of specific content area topics, general world topics, and rhetorical structures), for improving achievement in subject areas, and for sending a message to all that developing the lifetime reading habit is a major instructional priority.

At all stages of implementation, the professional staff was actively involved. For example, the staff demonstrated a commitmemt to the philosophy of independent reading and generated related goals, activities, strategies, and materials. The assistant superintendent for instruction provided an assurance, in writing, that budgetary considerations, a reasonable teacher-student ratio, and all-day staff development sessions would be maintained. The school district's building principals and department coordinators (K-12) also gave support by encouraging teachers to use school funds for appropriate materials and to "build" free reading into the classroom schedule. In addition, these middle managers made positive observations/evaluations of independent reading activities and motivated teachers to discuss their unique methodologies at faculty and department meetings. Interestingly, during the program's eight-year duration, one school building closed because of declining student enrollment. Consequently, a principal, an assistant principal, and thirty-five teachers were either excessed or transferred to other schools. The innovation, nonetheless, remained because many individuals shared important decision-making responsibilities and brought their ownership of the innovation to the new environment. Although the school district's approach was not mandated, strong collegiality prevailed during all phases of implementing the innovation, including the nurturing of daily dynamics necessary for continued success.

Summary

Societal trends and related pressures on young people have created a greater need for promoting and sustaining literacy experiences, such as independent reading in the schools. Initiating this innovation, however, is easier than maintaining it. Beyond the initial enthusiasm and desire for the new program lie months and years of continuous effort. Fortunately, experience and research provide guidance in sustaining this innovation (see Figure). Key factors are directing independent reading toward solving specific problems, being sensitive to complex factors and their relationship to school environments, preventing threats to longterm success, and using realistic approaches aimed at durability. Genuine cooperation among colleagues is also necessary for a lasting independent reading program because a strong sense of ownership contributes significantly to a sustained commitment. Although these suggestions are not a cure-all, they are timely considerations for preventing or lessening students' increased potential for failure.

Highlights of a Lasting Independent Reading Program

I. Aim the innovation toward solving a school problem

A. Conduct appropriate meetings to claify the problem and to suggest research-supported solutions

B. Link independent reading to curriculum development, budget, staffing, facilities, staff development, and evaluation

C. Consider limitations, such as time needed for researching the problem and for training key personnel

II. Be sensitive to complex factors necessary for a lasting independent reading program

A. Relate successful scenarios from the literature to the particular needs of a school

B. Decide on the best approach, such as a mandated thrust, a cooperative sharing of responsibilities, or a combination

III. Prevent potential crises that could threaten the longterm quality of independent reading

A. Maintain a budget item that is protected against future cuts

B. Encourage many individuals to share their competence and decision-making responsibility

IV. Increase the chances of sustaining independent reading by using workable approaches

A. Conduct surveys, interviews, observations, etc. to determine if the school's perceptions of the problem are supported by specific findings

B. Analyze the results and, if possible, associate them with a variety of recommendations, including the systematic development of lifetime literacy through independent reading in the school

C. Emphasize strong cooperation among the central office staff, the building administration, and the faculty during all phases of implementing independent reading

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Epilogue

As we reflect on the preceding chapters, we are aware that this book has not provided a complete picture of reading leadership. We believe, however, that we have presented valuable information that reading leaders can adopt and adapt to their varied roles and responsibilities. This information, by itself, does not guarantee effective reading leadership, but administrators and supervisors who update themselves have more to bring to decision-making processes. Well-informed administrators also tend to maintain more credibility when working cooperatively with teachers, parents, and children. Reading leaders should therefore continue to update themselves concerning the language arts field in particular and education in general. They also should consider their school environments as laboratory settings in which reasonable experimentation is an ongoing, desired process. Such a perspective not only increases the potential for improving reading environments but also places each reading leader in his or her needed role as an administrator/researcher. We wish our readers much success as they pursue effective reading leadership!

Appendix A

General Suggestions for Supporting Parents' Efforts to Encourage their Children to Read and Write

Frequently, parents ask, "How can I encourage my child to read and write?" The following general suggestions may be helpful to parents. The principal and classroom teacher may discuss these suggestions during parent-teacher conferences, PTSA meetings, and Open House gatherings.

Ways to Encourage Reading

1. Keep in touch with the school about your child's reading so that you will know how to help.
2. Help your child study and do homework by providing space, time, materials, and assistance if neccessary.
3. If your child is having difficulty with reading, contact the teacher to see how you might be able to help.
4. Listen to your child read a story aloud at home and ask questions about it.
5. Encourage your child to look in books for answers to questions.
6. Read aloud to your child often.
7. Have a family reading time when everyone reads together.
8. Make library visits a family event. Check out books together and encourage your child to participate in summer reading programs or story hours.
9. Include your child in family games that promote reading skills.
10. Listen to your child tell about a favorite book or story, and ask questions about it that require thoughtful answers.
11. Buy books for birthday or holiday gifts or as surprises.
12. Be a model of good reading by showing how much you enjoy reading yourself.
13. Read interesting passages from newspapers and magazines to your child.

14. Become involved with school activities by working as a parent volunteer or attending parent-teacher meetings.

15. If possible, help your child learn to use computers at home. Provide opportunities for using word processing to compose stories, activities to promote reading skill development, and games that encourage interest in reading.

16. Encourage your child to read and use a variety of materials, including brochures on special subjects, maps and tourist information about family trips, telephone directories, and catalogues.

17. Let your child subscribe to a children's magazine and/or become a member of a children's book club.

18. Provide an opportunity for your child to write and illustrate a book (Burns, Roe, and Ross, 1988, pp. 572-573).

Ways to Encourage Writing

1. Be a writer yourself. Provide examples of writing and spelling, while demonstrating uses of writing. Show your children how to make cards; order from catalogs; play restaurant, grocery store, library, and school; list favorite TV shows; plan a TV schedule; design menus; create maps; leave notes; and sign their names to birthday, holiday, and thank your cards.

2. Provide your child with easy access to writing and drawing materials. Colored paper, stationery, different sizes and kinds of other paper, and some paper stapled into booklets should be left on a low shelf or in a special drawer. Inexpensive markers, pens, pencils, watercolors, chalk, and a small chalkboard may be kept in a basket or tray near the paper. An old working typewriter is a wonderful addition to a writing center. Remember that writing may be done with a stick in the sand; a finger in the air; in shaving cream on a cookie sheet; or with beans, blocks, or minature marshmallows.

3. Celebrate your children's authorship. Ask your children to read what they have written. Talk about the scribbles, drawings, letters, and signs you see. Ask open-ended questions that encourage conversation about the drawings and stories. Respond to the meaning of the message in a positive way. Be a good audience.

4. Value your children's writing. Display artwork and writing in the kitchen and bedroom. Sit with your children and place attractive or favorite samples in a scrapbook. Frame special watercolors or their first attempt at writing their names.

5. *Read to your children for at least fifteen minutes a day*. Books clearly show that stories have a beginning, middle, and end. This model, as well as the standard spelling found in books, provides your children with knowledge on which to draw for writing. Let your children select books to be read, and try to establish a pattern of reading at the same time every day. Many parents find just before bedtime a comforting time to be together. Cuddle up to your children, hug them, and maybe hold them on your lap. However, if you are tired or rushed, it is better to skip a night in order to keep the reading experience pleasant.

6. *Encourage the concept of story by telling traditional stories, or stories from daily life, or retelling books*. Listen to your children tell made up stories or stories from personal experiences. Have them dictate stories to you and make the stories into books, using sheets of construction paper stapled together or index cards fastened with yarn. Your children can provide the illustrations. Books entitled *Things I like*, *Things I Don't Like*, *A Book about Me*, and *The Day I Went to the Farm* are enjoyable to make. Children may combine drawing with cutting pictures from old magazines while you supply the words.

7. *Encourage teachers to include writing as part of their daily curriculum*. Writing supports reading, mathematics, and other content areas; it is not an extra subject. Every classroom should have a writing center. (Baghban, 1989, pp. 10-11).

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Appendix B

Some Schema-Theoretic, Writing, and Metacognitive Guidelines for Improving Reading Lessons

	Indicate frequency of occurrence of each guideline				
	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
PReP					
1. Tutor plans to use PReP by selecting a word, phrase, or picture concerning a major concept in the text	1	2	3	4	5
2. Tutor uses PReP and records valuable information concerning learners' responses to:					
• What comes to your mind when you hear or see the word, phrase, or picture...?	1	2	3	4	5
• What made you think of that...?	1	2	3	4	5
• Have you any new ideas about...?	1	2	3	4	5
3. Tutor assesses students' levels of response and determines if students possess much, some, or little knowledge about a given concept	1	2	3	4	5
4. Tutor considers students' levels of knowledge for instructional purposes by:					
• Assigning appropriate reading materials to learners who possess much or some knowledge	1	2	3	4	5
• Giving guidance to students who have some knowledge by asking them probing questions	1	2	3	4	5
• Providing direct instruction of a relevant concept to individuals who possess little knowledge of the concept	1	2	3	4	5
Structured Overview					
5. Tutor guides students to assist with the development of a graphic hierarchy of a target concept that depicts:					
• Supraordinate concepts	1	2	3	4	5
• Coordinate concepts	1	2	3	4	5
• Subordinate concepts	1	2	3	4	5

	Indicate frequency of occurrence of each guideline				
	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
6. Tutor provides learners with:					
• Examples of the target concept	1	2	3	4	5
• Nonexamples of the target concept	1	2	3	4	5
• Relevant attributes of the target concept	1	2	3	4	5
• Irrelevant attributes of the target concept	1	2	3	4	5
7. Tutor encourages students to generalize their understanding of the target concept to new situations.	1	2	3	4	5
PQ4R					
8. Tutor motivates learners to activate their prior knowledge by applying the *preview* step in PQ4R to content area reading assignments, so that:					
• The title is examined	1	2	3	4	5
• The introductory statement is read thoroughly	1	2	3	4	5
• The subtitles, graphs, charts, tables, and captions are glanced over	1	2	3	4	5
• The summary statement is read carefully	1	2	3	4	5
9. Tutor guides learners to apply other steps in PQ4R (*question, read, reflect, recite,* and *review*) to content area reading assignments, so that knowledge previously activated during the *preview* step is confirmed, is bridged with new knowledge, is reconstructed.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Tutor encourages students to use PQ4R to develop flexibility of schema shifting of subthemes in textbook chapters.	1	2	3	4	5

Indicate frequency of occurrence of each guideline

Discourse Types

11. Tutor presents models and examples of the following discourse types and discourse forces, so that students learn to identify and write them and thus improve their reading comprehension:

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
• Descriptive discourse with an informing force (e.g., technical, descriptive, botany, and geography)	1	2	3	4	5
• Descriptive discourse with an entertaining force (e.g., ordinary description)	1	2	3	4	5
• Descriptive discourse with a persuading force (e.g., house advertisement)	1	2	3	4	5
• Descriptive discourse with a literary-aesthetic force (e.g., poetic description)	1	2	3	4	5
• Narrative discourse with an informing force (e.g., newspaper story, history, instructions, recipes, and biography)	1	2	3	4	5
• Narrative discourse with an entertaining force (e.g., mystery novel, western novel, science fiction novel, fairy tale, short story, biography, and "light" drama)	1	2	3	4	5
• Narrative discourse with a persuading force (e.g., "message novel," parable, fable, advertisement, and drama)	1	2	3	4	5
• Narrative discourse with a literary-aesthetic force(e.g., literary novel, short story, and "serious" drama)	1	2	3	4	5
• Expository discourse with an informing force (e.g., scientific article, philosophy, and abstract definition)	1	2	3	4	5
• Expository discourse with a persuading force (e.g., sermon, propaganda, editorial, advertisement, and essay)	1	2	3	4	5

	Indicate frequency of occurrence of each guideline				
	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
Response Heuristic					
12. Tutor guides learners to realize similarities of reading and writing by encouraging learners to write about their understanding of text while including:					
• Specific retellings of the text	1	2	3	4	5
• Explicit connections between personal associations and interpretations of the text	1	2	3	4	5
• Generalizations from the discussion	1	2	3	4	5
Writing Patterns					
13. Tutor motivates students to integrate reading and writing processes by:					
• Presenting examples of major writing patterns for the content areas	1	2	3	4	5
• Stimulating learners to read the writing patterns and to develop a feel for the way they are constructed	1	2	3	4	5
• Assisting individuals to construct passages similar to the writing patterns	1	2	3	4	5
Question Generation					
14. Tutor helps learners to create questions for expository paragraphs and passages by:					
• Recognizing the main ideas	1	2	3	4	5
• Developing questions relating to the main ideas but reflecting new examples of the concepts presented in the instructional materials	1	2	3	4	5
• Paraphrasing the questions about the concepts if the new examples are inappropriate	1	2	3	4	5

Indicate frequency of occurrence of each guideline

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
15. Tutor guides students to develop story-specific questions from schema-general questions during the reading of a complex short story's:					
• Leading character	1	2	3	4	5
• Goal	1	2	3	4	5
• Obstacles	1	2	3	4	5
• Outcome	1	2	3	4	5
• Theme	1	2	3	4	5

Monitoring and Resolving Comprehension Blocks

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
16. Tutor teaches individuals to monitor and resolve blocks to comprehension by:					
• Using a passage the reader can decode proficiently	1	2	3	4	5
• Interspersing questions in the text so that some of the answers are not automatically resolvable	1	2	3	4	5
• Observing verbal and nonverbal behaviors of students as they answer the questions	1	2	3	4	5
17. Tutor motivates individuals to:					
• Recognize that a comprehension block has occurred	1	2	3	4	5
• Decide whether to take action at that time	1	2	3	4	5
• Engage in appropriate activities (if needed) which supply the necessary data	1	2	3	4	5

	Indicate frequency of occurrence of each guideline				
	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
Text Structure					
18. Tutor increases students' awareness of the structure of textbook chapters by:					
• Directing students' attention to the organizational aspects of chapters	1	2	3	4	5
• Reminding students to avoid reading the chapters nonstop	1	2	3	4	5
• Guiding students to use strategies such as SQ3R, PQ4R, and PQRST	1	2	3	4	5
19. Tutor helps learners to adhere to the author's text structure by:					
• Using well-organized passages with recognizable top level structures and suitable reading levels	1	2	3	4	5
• Presenting the passages initially with underlined words of signaling	1	2	3	4	5
• Using passages with no underlined words of signaling when students demonstrate facility identifying top level structures	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix C

Guidelines for the Specialized Preparation of Reading Professionals *

Introduction

The International Reading Association is a professional organization concerned with the promotion of literacy, with specific emphasis on reading, language, and thinking. Its primary purposes are to promote quality reading/language arts instruction, and a level of reading maturity commensurate with each individual's unique capacity.

Reading is a life-long, developmental process. To flourish and mature, it must be promoted and reinforced at every level from early childhood/elementary school through high school, college, and beyond.

Effective reading requires relevant prior knowledge structures, intertwined with the ability to interpret critically and apply new information. Hence, the central objective of the school reading program is to promote maturity in reading and maturity through reading, i.e., learning to read and reading to learn.

This publication is the Association's recommended guide for individuals, teacher education institutions, local, state and provincial education agencies, professional organizations, private and corporate educational, vocational, and social agencies, and the general public as they examine the preparation of teachers in knowledge of the reading process and in reading instruction.

Contents of the Publication

The major sections of this document address the issues of:

- Designated Roles and Responsibilities of Classroom Teachers, Reading Specialists and Allied Professionals.
- Academic Preparation in Reading for Classroom Teachers, Reading Specialists and Allied Professionals.
- Competencies for Classroom Teachers, Reading Specialists and Allied Professionals.

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*Note. From Guidelines for the Specialized Preparation of Reading Professionals (pp. 1-18) by the Professional Standards and Ethics Committee, 1986, Newark, DE: International Reading Association. Copyright 1986 by the International Reading Association. Reprinted with permission.

Designated Roles and Responsibilities of Reading Professionals

Many titles are used by local, state and provincial educational agencies to describe the various roles and responsibilities of teachers and administrators involved in reading instruction. Although several different titles could be used to delineate each of the roles described in this document, for implementation of these Guidelines, a role description is more important than its title. In many educational agencies and situations, individuals fulfill more than one role. In such cases, it is recommended that a person be qualified and certificated (licensed/credentialed) for each assigned role.

Role Responsibilities

CATEGORY I: CLASSROOM TEACHERS

- Role 1 *Early Childhood and / or Elementary Teacher* (Preschool-8)
  Teaches in a regular classroom at the preschool, elementary, middle school or junior high school level; responsible for classroom reading or reading readiness instruction. Also responsible for the basic identification of and the prevention of reading problems.
- Role 2 *Secondary Teacher* (Grades 7-12)
  Teaches in a regular (self-contained or departmentalized content area) classroom at the middle school, junior high, or high school level; responsible for reading instruction in content areas (as opposed to instruction in specialized reading courses.)

CATEGORY II: READING SPECIALISTS

- Role 3 *Diagnostic-Remedial Specialist*
  Assesses, remediates, and plans instructional intervention at the elementary or secondary level, or in a laboratory, a clinic (public, private or commercial), or a resource center at all levels. Provides service to students designated as having reading disabilities, reading difficulties, or environmental/educational deprivation (e.g., Chapter 1). Coordinates reading services provided to each disabled learner in conjunction with the classroom teacher and those in allied professions.
- Role 4 *Developmental Reading-Study Skills Specialist*
  Teaches developmental and / or corrective reading, writing, and thinking skills at the secondary school, community college, college or university/professional school levels. May be responsible for teaching developmental reading in corporate educational, vocational, penal, or social agencies.
  Responsible for teaching higher order developmental and study skills as well as for providing diagnostic corrective and/or remedial services.
- Role 5 *Reading Consultant/Reading Resource Teacher*
  Organizes and administers a school site reading program.
  Responsible for providing leadership to classroom teachers, diagnostic-remedial specialists, and / or developmental reading-study skills specialists in planning, organizing, managing, and evaluating the school-wide reading program. The consultant's tasks may include: a) applying current research/theory to practice in all programs; b) articulating a balanced reading-language-thinking program through the grades; c) providing staff development consistent with assessed needs of program and staff; d) coordinating the work of reading specialists and special services personnel; and e) advising administration and community about the school reading/language arts program.
- Role 6 *Reading Coordinator/Supervisor*
  Supervises a district-wide reading and language arts program as central office staff person, or directs public, private, or corporate educational, vocational, penal, or social agency serving learners at any level.
  Responsible for student progress toward reading maturity through: a) improvement of curriculum, methodology, and management of district-wide reading/language arts programs and policies; b) application of current research/theory in the refinement of reading and language arts instruction; c) coordination and implementation of collaborative reading research; d) attainment of resources through budget processes and grant applications; e) development of community support for the reading/language arts program; f) supervision and evaluation of classroom teachers, diagnostic-remedial specialists, and reading consultants; and g) support of professional development through provision for attendance at workshops, conferences, and conventions.
- Role 7 *Reading Professor*
  Teaches reading education courses at college or university level.
  Responsible for: a) providing preservice education, inservice education, and advanced study at the college and university level to all reading professionals designated in this document; b) conducting research and evaluating the principles, practices, and needs of the field; and c) disseminating state-of-the-art information goals and objectives to the educational community and community at large through collaborative efforts in publication and speaking.

CATEGORY III: ALLIED PROFESSIONS

- Role 8 *Special Education Teacher*
  Has direct instructional responsibilities in a self-contained learning disabilities or special education classroom or a resource room. Works with students who have specific disabilities in reading as well as those who are deficient in several academic areas.

- Role 9 *Administrator*
  Provides leadership to, and supervision of, elementary or secondary teachers at the building or district level. Is ultimately responsible for the school reading program.
- Role 10 *Support Service Provider*
  Provides service to students with reading problems in the role of a psychologist, a guidance counselor, a speech teacher/therapist, or a social worker in a public or private school or educational agency.

Designated Knowledge Areas and Competencies for Reading Professionals

The International Reading Association, in suggesting knowledge areas and competencies for teachers, specialists, and those in allied professions, assumes appropriate liberal arts pedagogical background. It also assumes frequent professional experiences with learners. The knowledge areas presented here relate to the teachers', reading specialists', and all allied professionals' preparation in the teaching of reading, language, and thinking.

Academic Preparation

Two general approaches to teacher preparation are currently in use: (1) modules based on sequences of skills, concepts, and attitudes to be attained by a teacher, and (2) credit hour courses. Often these approaches need to be equated. This is done by studying course content to ascertain which competencies are addressed. The terminology used here is that of the institutions of the United States and *A Dictionary of Reading and Related Terms* (International Reading Association, 1981). For the purpose of these Guidelines, one unit of credit or credit hour is equal to approximately 15 clock hours of instruction, i.e. a semester credit hour unit rather than a term credit hour unit.

CATEGORY I: CLASSROOM TEACHERS (Roles 1,2)

The preparation of all classroom teachers at the early childhood/elementary school level should include a total of nine credit hours: six in *core* courses and three in *related* courses. The preparation of all classroom teachers at the secondary school level should include a minimum of three to six credit hours: three in *core* courses with additional credits drawn from either category.

Core courses (generic titles)
  Reading in the Elementary School
  Reading in the Middle School
  Reading in the Secondary School
  Reading in the Content Areas
  Practicum in Teaching Reading
Related courses
  Language and Cognitive Development
  Teaching of the Language Arts
  Literature for Children

Literature for Adolescents and Young Adults
Child/Adolescent Psychology
Linguistics

CATEGORY II: READING SPECIALISTS (Roles 3,4,5,6,7)

The preparation of Diagnostic-Remedial Specialists (Role 3), Developmental Reading-Study Skills Specialists (Role 4), Reading Consultant/Reading Resource Teacher (Role 5) requires a minimum of 18-24 graduate credit hours in reading education courses from among:

Language Arts
Content Area Reading, Study, and Thinking Skills
Evaluation of Reading and Related Abilities
Children's or Adolescent Literature
Psychology of Reading
Sociology of Reading
Assessment of Reading Difficulties
Correction of Reading and Related Deficiencies
Clinical Practicum Internship
Seminar in Reading Research
College and Adult Reading Programs
Reading and the Learning Disabled Student
Teaching English As a Second Language

The preparation of Reading Coordinator/Supervisor (Role 6) should be three to six credit hours in supervision and administration courses and an additional three to six credit hours in specialized reading courses from among:

Action Research and Program Evaluation in Reading
Supervision and Organization of Reading Programs
Internship in Clinical or Field Based Supervision

The Reading Professors (Role 7) should be prepared in course work similar to that of reading specialists. In addition, they should be graduates of an accredited doctoral program preparing them to assess, interpret, and engage in research and development activities.

CATEGORY III: ALLIED PROFESSIONS (Roles 8,9,10)

The preparation of *all* special education teachers (Role 8)* should include six credit hours in core reading courses and three credit hours in related reading courses from among:

Core courses (generic titles)
  Reading in the Elementary School
  Reading in the Middle School
  Reading in the Secondary School
  Reading in the Content Areas
  Practicum in Teaching Reading

Related courses
  Language and Cognitive Development
  Teaching of the Language Arts
  Literature for Children
  Literature for Adolescents and Young Adults
  Child/Adolescent Psychology
  Linguistics

The academic preparation of school administrators (Role 9) should include six credit hours in basic reading courses and nine credit hours in related reading courses.

School administrators, as the instructional leaders at the local level, should possess knowledge of the reading process, classroom reading instruction, and knowledge of the organization of classrooms and schools for effective instruction. It is recommended that all administrators possess the common knowledge areas and competencies for classroom teachers. In addition, they should have knowledge and competence in program planning and curriculum.

The preparation of support service personnel (Role 10), such as psychologists, guidance counselors, speech teachers/therapists, and social workers, should include a minimum of 6-9 hours in the core and related reading courses (page 5).

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*If the person is a special educator who assumes the role of a diagnostic-remedial reading specialist (Role 3), the same knowledge areas and competencies will be required of the special educator as those required of the diagnostic-remedial reading professional (page 6 and page 8 +).

Competencies Role Titles

CATEGORY I: CLASSROOM TEACHER
Role One: *Early Childhood and Elementary Teacher*
Role Two: *Secondary Teacher*
CATEGORY II: READING SPECIALIST
Role Three: *Diagnostic-Remedial Specialist*
Role Four: *Developmental Reading-Study Skills Specialist*
Role Five: *Reading Consultant/Reading Resource Teacher*
Role Six: *Reading Coordinator/Supervisor*
Role Seven: *Professor of Reading*
CATEGORY III: ALLIED PROFESSIONS
Role Eight: *Special Education Teacher*
Role Nine: *Administrator*
Role Ten: *Support Service Provider*

Level of Competency

O - not required
A - basic understanding
B - intermediate understanding
C - in-depth understanding

NOTE: The knowledge areas and competencies described in this document should be regarded as minimum requirements.

COMPETENCIES	ROLES Classroom Teachers		Reading Specialists					Allied Professions		
			3	4	5	6	7			
I. *Linguistic and Cognitive Bases for Reading*										
A. Linguistics										
1. Understands that language is a symbolic system representing concepts and feelings.	A	A	B	B	C	C	C	B	A	A
2. Understands the relationship of graphophonemic, morphemic, syntactic, and semantic systems of language to the reading process.	A	A	C	B	B	C	C	A	A	A
3. Respects linguistic differences in relation to the sociocultural environment.	B	B	C	B	C	C	C	B	B	B
4. Understands the concept of dialectical variation.	A	A	C	B	B	C	C	A	A	A
B. Psychology of Language and Cognition										
1. Understands the linguistic and cognitive bases of the reading process.	A	A	B	B	C	C	C	A	A	A
2. Understands the role of prior knowledge and experience in learning new information.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C
3. Understands the modes of thought (e.g. analytical thinking, critical thinking, and divergent thinking) operative in the reading process.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	B	B
4. Understands the role of metacognition in reading and learning.	B	B	C	C	C	C	C	B	B	B

Level of Competency: O - not required; A - basic understanding; B - intermediate understanding; C - in-depth understanding

COMPETENCIES **ROLES**

	Classroom Teachers		Reading Specialists					Allied Professions		
			3	4	5	6	7			
C. Language and cognitive development										
1. Understands major theories of language development.	C	A	C	A	B	B	C	C	A	A
2. Understands major theories of cognitive development.	B	B	B	B	B	B	C	B	A	B
3. Understands the importance of oral language and in the development of reading and writing.	C	A	C	C	C	C	C	C	B	B
4. Understands the role of varied instructional experiences in language and concept development.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	B	A
5. Understands the relationship of reading to other language arts and the content areas.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A
II. *Comprehension*										
A. Literal/interpretive comprehension										
1. Provides direct instruction and modeling of comprehension strategies.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	B	A
2. Teaches students how to apply comprehension strategies for a variety of purposes to various materials and tasks, including everyday life situations.	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	B	A
3. Provides instruction in using knowledge of the conventions of language and genre in the reading process (e.g. sentence patterns, punctuation cues, paragraph structures, and styles of discourse).	B	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A

Level of Competency: O - not required; A - basic understanding; B - intermediate understanding; C - in-depth understanding

COMPETENCIES **ROLES**

	Classroom Teachers		Reading Specialists					Allied Professions		
			3	4	5	6	7			
4. Uses teacher directed questions to enhance understanding.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
5. Develops students' abilities to use self-guided questioning.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
6. Integrates comprehension strategies into the content areas.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
B. Critical/evaluative comprehension										
1. Develops a functional understanding of critical reading.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
2. Teaches students to evaluate material in terms of recency, accuracy, adequacy, and relevance.	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
3. Teaches students to seek out and synthesize information from a variety of textual and non-textual sources.	A	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
4. Teaches students to analyze bias and propaganda.	B	B	B	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
C. Reference and study skills										
1. Teaches students to vary reading rate with purpose(s) for reading and difficulty of material.	A	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
2. Teaches students to locate and use reference materials.	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A

Level of Competency: O - not required; A - basic understanding; B - intermediate understanding; C - in-depth understanding

COMPETENCIES	ROLES Classroom Teachers		Reading Specialists					Allied Professions		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
3. Teaches students to take notes, to develop outlines, to combine information from a number of sources, and to use and prepare bibliographies.	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	B	A	A
4. Teaches students to use self directed strategies for reading and study tasks.	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	B	A	A
5. Teaches students to use the parts of a book: table of contents, advance organizers, headings, footnotes, summaries, questions, glossary, indexes, and appendices.	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
6. Teaches students to understand and interpret graphics: tables, charts, graphs, figures, illustrations, and photographs.	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
III. *Word Identification and Vocabulary*										
A. Word Recognition										
1. Understands the relationship between word recognition and comprehension.	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
2. Teaches the flexible use of a wide variety of word recognition strategies.	C	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
3. Teaches the use of: a) word recognition, b) graphophonemic relationships, and c) context clues.	C	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
4. Uses a variety of approaches for teaching word recognition.	C	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A

Level of Competency: O - not required; A - basic understanding; B - intermediate understanding; C - in-depth understanding

COMPETENCIES	ROLES Classroom Teachers		Reading Specialists					Allied Professions		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
B. Word meanings										
1. Teaches strategies for learning the meanings of words.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
2. Creates lessons to develop and extend vocabulary.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
IV. *Appreciation and Enjoyment*										
A. Teaching the author's craft										
1. Creates lessons to encourage appreciation of language.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
2. Encourages the appreciation of a wide variety of genre, appropriate to the students' developmental reading level.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	B	A
3. Conducts lessons to advance personal-social growth through literary appreciation.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
B. Developing lifelong reading habits										
1. Provides direct instruction and modeling in the use of books and other printed sources for personal growth and lifelong learning.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
2. Teaches content area reading strategies to encourage competence and independence for lifelong learning.	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	B	A	A
V. *Diagnostic Teaching*										
A. Assessing student needs										
1. Regards evaluation as an ongoing process, not a onetime activity.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C

Level of Competency: O - not required; A - basic understanding; B - intermediate understanding; C - in-depth understanding

COMPETENCIES	Classroom Teachers		Reading Specialists					Allied Professions		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2. Administers, scores, and interprets both norm-referenced and criterion-referenced tests to assess reading readiness and reading achievement.	C	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	B	B
3. Uses observational and informal assessment procedures to plan and monitor student learning in reading.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	B	C
4. Identifies patterns of behavior which might indicate physical, social, emotional, or intellectual impediments or progress toward reading maturity.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C
5. Understands characteristics, strengths, and weaknesses of various assessment instruments.	A	A	C	C	C	C	C	B	C	C
6. Applies principles of test construction and evaluation to development, selection, and use of instruments for assessment purposes.	A	A	B	B	B	C	C	B	B	B
7. Cooperates with appropriate allied professionals in assessing and planning for students with severe reading deficiencies.	A	A	C	A	C	C	C	C	B	C
8. Follows appropriate procedures for referring severely disabled students to agencies and professionals for in-depth assessment as appropriate.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C
B. Organizing classrooms for effective instruction 1. Emphasizes prevention of disabling conditions.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C

Level of Competency: O - not required; A - basic understanding; B - intermediate understanding; C - in-depth understanding

COMPETENCIES	Classroom Teachers		Reading Specialists					Allied Professions		
			3	4	5	6	7			
2. Uses diagnostic teaching to maximize opportunities for learning.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
3. Understands individual differences in language development, aptitude, experience, and skill development.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C
4. Accepts and builds upon students' unique patterns of language.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	B	C
5. Uses flexible grouping based on students' instructional level, rate of progress, and interests.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A
6. Uses differentiated instruction to accommodate students' background, aptitude, attitudes, interests, and achievement.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
7. Adapts content area reading instruction to meet individual needs.	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
C. Using effective teaching and learning approaches 1. Uses direct instruction and modeling.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	B	A
2. Teaches self-monitoring strategies.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	A	A
3. Teaches a variety of study strategies.	B	C	B	C	C	C	C	B	A	A
D. Instructing students with special reading needs 1. Understands nature and multiple causes of reading/learning disabilities.	B	A	C	C	C	C	C	C	B	C

Level of Competency: O - not required; A - basic understanding; B - intermediate understanding; C - in-depth understanding

COMPETENCIES	ROLES Classroom Teachers		Reading Specialists					Allied Professions		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		
2. Uses a variety of high interest materials and techniques for helping students with severe reading/learning deficiencies.	B	A	C	B	C	C	C	C	A	A
3. Teaches reading strategies to students with limited language proficiency.	A	A	B	B	B	B	C	A	A	A
4. Involves parents, when appropriate, in cooperative efforts necessary to help students with reading difficulties.	C	B	C	B	C	C	C	C	C	C
5. Creates special reading resource rooms, clinics, or other facilities to aid students with reading difficulties.	A	A	C	C	C	C	C	B	C	C
6. Uses appropriate techniques for teaching reading to gifted and talented students.	A	A	A	A	C	C	C	A	A	A
7. Coordinates instructional services for exceptional learners.	B	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C
VI. *Continuing Program Maintenance Planning and Improvement*										
A. Interaction with other professionals, parents, and the community										
1. Understands the importance of informing members of the community regarding the reading/language arts program.	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C
2. Coordinates students' special reading instruction with regular classroom instruction.	B	B	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C

Level of Competency: O - not required; A - basic understanding; B - intermediate understanding; C - in-depth understanding

COMPETENCIES	ROLES Classroom Teachers		Reading Specialists					Allied Professions		
			3	4	5	6	7			
B. Curriculum development										
1. Conducts needs assessments and action research to determine program needs.	A	A	B	B	B	C	C	A	C	A
2. Works with the staff to specify the objectives of reading/language arts programs.	A	A	A	A	B	C	C	A	C	B
3. Develops and evaluates school programs in reading/language arts.	A	A	B	B	C	C	C	B	C	A
4. Implements the findings of research within the instructional program.	B	B	B	B	B	C	C	B	B	B
5. Assists classroom teachers in developing reading/language arts lessons.	A	A	B	B	C	C	C	A	A	A
6. Plans for integrating reading/language arts instruction with other curriculum areas.	B	B	B	B	C	C	C	B	B	A
7. Is familiar with developmental, supplemental, nonprint and library materials for teaching reading.	B	B	C	C	C	C	C	B	B	A
8. Uses appropriate supervisory techniques.	O	O	O	O	B	C	C	O	C	A
9. Understands the importance of cost-effective budgetary practices for the reading/language arts program.	A	A	A	A	B	C	C	A	C	A
C. Staff development										
1. Shares the professional literature with teachers and others as appropriate.	A	A	B	B	C	C	C	B	C	B

Level of Competency: O - not required; A - basic understanding; B - intermediate understanding; C - in-depth understanding

COMPETENCIES	ROLES Classroom Teachers		Reading Specialists					Allied Professions		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2. Plans, conducts, and evaluates inservice programs in reading/language arts.	A	A	A	A	B	C	C	A	C	A
3. Coordinates all the services associated with the reading/language arts program.	O	O	A	A	B	C	C	O	C	O
D. Conducting research										
1. Conducts action research in reading instruction.	A	A	B	B	B	C	C	A	B	A
2. Understands and/or conducts ethnographic and experimental research in reading.	A	A	B	B	B	C	C	A	B	A
3. Uses effective procedures for formative and summative evaluation of reading programs at the school site or system level.	O	O	A	A	B	C	C	O	C	A
4. Prepares status reports for presentation to other reading personnel, administrators, school/education boards, parents and the community-at-large.	O	O	B	B	B	C	C	O	B	B

Level of Competency: O - not required; A - basic understanding; B - intermediate understanding; C - in-depth understanding

Appendix D

Professional Periodicals

The periodicals listed below are useful resources for reading leaders. They range from a generalist perspective to a specialist focus. Under the title of each periodical, the following information is provided: the intended professional audience, the frequency of publication, the publisher, and related annotated information. Educational leaders are encouraged to read these and other pertinent resources.

Childhood Education

Infancy through early adolescence
Quarterly (plus an annual theme issue)
Published by Association for Childhood Education International
11141 Georgia Avenue
Suite 200
Wheaton, Maryland 20902

Provides a variety of topics related to the preschool and elementary school child. Language arts themes are addressed often.

Educational Leadership

Elementary and secondary school
Monthly (from September through May except bi-monthly December/January)
Published by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
1250 N. Pitt Street
Alexandria, Virginia 22314

Publishes articles concerning leadership, curriculum, and instruction. Most issues support a theme, and at times the theme reflects a language arts thrust. For example, the March 1990 issue focuses on "Reading and Writing."

English Journal

Middle, junior, and high school

Monthly (from September through April)

Published by the National Council of Teachers of English
1111 Kenyon Road
Urbana, Illinois 61801

Publishes articles representing a variety of issues in English education. Most issues reflect a theme.

Journal of Reading

Secondary, college, adult education

Monthly (from September through May; combined December/January issue)

Published by the International Reading Association
800 Barksdale Road
P.O. Box 8139
Newark, Delaware 19714

Focuses on current theory, research, and practice of the reading field. Of special interest to educational leaders is a column for "Reading Supervisors."

Language Arts

Preschool and elementary school

Monthly (from September through April)

Published by the National Council of Teachers of English
1111 Kenyon Road
Urbana, Illinois 61801

Presents articles concerning the content and the teaching of language arts. Each issue usually reflects a theme.

NASSP Bulletin

Secondary school

Monthly (from September through May)

Published by the National Association of
Secondary School Princpals
1904 Association Drive
Reston, Virginia 22091

Emphasizes leadership articles, and most issues highlight a specific theme. Occasionally, the theme concerns language arts.

Phi Delta Kappan

Elementary and secondary school

Monthly (from September through June)

Published by Phi Delta Kappa
Eighth & Union
P. O. Box 789
Bloomingtcn, Indiana 47402

Presents articles concerning leadership, service, and educational research as well as policy, trends, and issues. Ocasionally, issues focus on language arts themes, such as the writing process and literacy learning.

Principal

Elementary school

Monthly (September, November, January, March, May)

Published by the National Association of Elementary
School Principals
1615 Duke Street
Alexandria, Virginia 22314

Presents articles related to varied aspects of elementary leadership, curriculum, and instruction. Language arts topics are usually addressed.

Reading Research and Instruction

Elementary and secondary school

Quarterly

Published by The College Reading Association
c/o Robert B. Cooter
Bowling Green State University
576 Education Building
Bowling Green, Ohio 43403

Publishes articles concerning research and instruction in reading education and related fields.

The Reading Teacher

Preschool and elementary school

Monthly (from September through May)

Published by the International Reading Association
800 Barksdale Road
P. O. Box 8139
Newark, Delaware 19714

Highlights current theory, research, and practice of the reading field. Of special interest to administrators is a column entitled "Working with Parents."

Reading Today

Preschool to high school

Bimonthly newspaper

Published by the International Reading Association
800 Barksdale Road
P. O. Box 8139
Newark, Delaware 19714

Provides updated information concerning professional language arts activities occurring throughout the world. Several regular features are especially pertinent to educational leaders, and they include "News for Administrators/Supervisors" and "News for Parents."

Young Children

Birth through age 8

Monthly (November, January, March, May, July, and September)

Published by the National Association for the
Education of Young Children
1834 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.
Washington, DC 20009

Focuses on developments in early childhood education within the context of theory, research, and practice. Articles concerning language arts are usually presented.

Appendix E

Reading Leadership: An Annotated Bibliography

We believe that the preceding chapters, though not complete, have provided useful information to administrators, supervisors, and consultants. As we stated initially in this book, those concerned with reading leadership should gain pertinent knowledge from a variety of sources. The following annotated bibliography represents only one source of knowledge. Although this bibliography is not extensive, it does reflect current thinking in the reading field. Educators are encouraged to read these and other references as a means of building a continuing knowledge base for enhancing reading programs.

Bean, R.M., & Eichelberger, R.T. (1985). Changing the role of reading specialists: From pull-out to in-class programs. _The Reading Teacher_, 38, 648-653.

Discusses a study conducted in a large urban school system that changed from pull-out to in-class reading programs. Questionnaires distributed to reading specialists and classroom teachers were returned, and the results were presented in three parts: changes in the reading specialists' roles, perceived importance of varied activities, and strengths and weaknesses of the in-class program. Several conclusions are presented, including (1) reading specialists focused on instruction that was congruent with classroom needs; (2) both specialists and teachers considered the specialists' role to be important, especially as it related to working with problem readers in the classroom;(3) conceptual and implementation problems surfaced when instituting the in-class program.

Bean, R.M., & Wilson, R.M. (1982). *Effective change in school reading programs: The resource role.* Newark, DE; International Reading Association.

Offers suggestions for reading specialists serving as resource persons. The authors provided insights about such areas as effective communication, interpersonal skills, and evaluation. Especially pertinent in a leadership context is"Chapter 5" which concerns resource persons functioning in a leadership capacity. This chapter focuses on clarifying leadership roles, discussing leadership skills, and suggesting strategies for resource educators.

Ekwall, E.E., & Shanker, J.L. (1988). *Diagnosis and remediation of the disabled reader* (3rd Ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Provides information related to reasons for reading failure, educational factors, psychological and sociological problems, physical disabilities, severe reading disabilities, and other areas concerning diagnosis and remdediation Especially pertinent for administrators is "Chapter 13" which focuses on the administrator and the remedial reading program. This chapter concerns the roles of educational leaders, reading specialists, and parents as well as the selection of students for special instruction, the frequency and length of class sessions, and other related areas. References accompany most chapters, and five appendices are also included.

Feeley, J.T., Strickland, D.S., and Wepner, S.B. (in press). *From writing process to reading process: K-8 teachers share their literacy programs*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Presents individually authored chapters focusing on process approaches to writing and reading. Sections of the monograph concern the primary grades, the middle elementary grades, the upper elementary grades, special populations, and district-wide perspectives. Some of these sections include a final chapter highlighting an administrator's perspective on such topics as learning to read through literature, making transitions to trade books, and linking the reading, writing and storytelling processes. In addition, the editors emphasize that moving toward literature-based, process-oriented programs requires a team approach with strong support from administrators.

Goodman, K. (1986). *What's whole in whole language*? Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Describes the whole language philosophy, using understandable terms. Goodman focuses on a variety of pertinent areas, including a flexible definition of whole language, a discussion of how to implement it, a view of its relationship to children's overall literacy development, and a concern for revaluing as alternative to remediation. While stressing the importance of the teacher's role, Goodman states, "Wise administrators will rely on effective whole language teachers to support the program and to bring it and the rest of the staff along" (p. 77).

Hallinger, P., & Murphy, J. (1985). Characteristics of highly effective elementary school reading programs. Educational Leadership, 42, 39-42.

Analyzes the policies and practices of two successful, high-achieving elementary schools. The effective reading climates are the result of coordinated schoolwide reading efforts which focus on time allocation, use of a variety of materials, easy access to books in both the classroom and the library, emphasis on literature, reading reinforcement in the home, and support services that are integrated in the regular classroom. The researchers also discuss the importance of instructional leadership and describe how different leadership styles can be equally effective. For example, in one school, the building principal played a major role in all decision making concerning reading. In another school, however, the principal delegated leadership roles to faculty leaders with expertise and willingness to perform such roles. Interestingly, both schools were comparably successful.

Harp. B. (1987-1989). When the principal asks. The Reading Teacher, 41,42.

Presents a column concerning administrative involvement in the school reading program. From October 1987 to May 1989, the author wrote brief practical articles concerning a variety of topics, including literary processes in the content areas, whole language, using literature study groups, and going beyond ability grouping.

Hillerich, R. (1983). The principal's guide to improving reading instruction. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Provides information concerning leadership roles in reading instruction and guides principals, supervisors, and consultants to establish priorities related to the teaching of reading. Varied topics and suggestions are covered, including readiness and beginning reading, phonics and structural analysis, the role of independent reading, comprehension skills, adjusting for indiviual differences, and evaluating a reading lesson. These and other areas can be used for inservice education.

Laffey, J. (1980). The role of the elementary principal in the school reading program: Research and practice. The Reading Teacher, 33, 632-636.

Reviews research and literature concerning roles of elementary school principals in school reading programs. The research findings are varied and concern a number of areas, including principals' knowledge of reading, specific tasks performed by administrators, positive leadership characteristics and their impact on student's reading achievement and reading program development, and principals' strategies for making decisions. In addition to research findings, the author summarizes leadership practices, such as promoting an atmosphere of change, providing positive public relations, and serving as an instructional leader.

Mangieri, J.N., & Heimberger, M.J. (1980). Perceptions of the reading consultant's role. *Journal of Reading*, 23, 527-530.

Presents the results of a survey concerning perceptions of reading consultants' roles. Consultants and administrators responded to a questionnaire listing seven functions of reading consultants summarized by H. Alan Robinson and Sidney J. Rauch (*Guiding the Reading Program: A Reading Consultant's Handbook*). These functions are: resource person, advisor, inservice leader, investigator, diagnostician, instructor, and evaluator. The respondents rank ordered the functions from most important to least important. The results suggest that the consultants and administrators who were surveyed approve of the seven functions and believe they should be performed; however, these two groups of professionals vary widely concerning their perceptions of which roles are most important.

Mersand, J. (1980). Renewal and reaffirmation: An Engish chairman reflects on thirty years of administration and supervision. *The English Journal*, 69, 34-36.

Defines creative supervision as "the encouragement, stimulation, and guidance of each teacher in a department to his or her maximum capacity so that he or she may contribute to the development of every pupil in the class." The author then lists guiding principles of his philosophy of creative supervision. These principles include establishing mutual respect and understanding, providing clear communication between supervisor and teacher, perceiving supervision as both an art and a science, and providing opportunities for professional growth and development. These principles and others reflect the author's experiences as an English supervisor for three decades.

Ollila, L. (Ed.). (1980). Handbook for administrators and teachers: Reading in the kindergarten. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Presents helpful ideas for principals and teachers who administer kindergarten reading programs. Chapter One provides a foundation of what has been learned about kindergarten reading programs. Chapter Two focuses on studies related to psychology and linguistics and their influence on reading readiness. Chapter Three deals with specific roles of administrators in beginning reading programs and suggests practical approaches to working with teachers and parents. Chapter Four concerns the planning process and presents ideas for initiating the kindergarten prereading program. Chapter Five describes ways of organizing for instruction and explores different models of reading instruction. Chapter Six presents a comprehensive plan for continuous diagnosis and assessment. Throughout this monograph, the importance of administrative involvement in school reading programs is stressed.

Rauch, S.J. (1981-1884). The administrator and the reading program. Reading World, 22, 23.

Presents a column supporting the varied roles of the administrator in the reading program. Topics include why reading programs succeed, motivating teachers, and (with Joseph Sanacore) two annotated bibliographies on reading leadership. This column is intended for teacher educators but also has value for school practitioners.

(1988-1989). Reading supervisors. Journal of Reading, 32, 33.

Presents a column highlighting supervisory roles for the reading program. P. Hagerty, P. Hoagland, and J. Smith are among the columnists who address topics, such as the reading supervisor as an instructional leader, delegation for the busy administrator, and reading specialists enhancing classroom instruction. Each article is brief and provides practical suggestions.

Sanacore, J. (1989). Commentary: Needed: The principal's support in creating a positive professional attitude toward independent reading in the schools. Reading Research and Instruction, 28, 73-79.

Suggests ideas that administrators and teachers can share as they work toward building a positive attitude toward motivating students to read in school. The importance of cooperative efforts and staff participation is stressed, and the positive uses of staff development and developmental supervision are highlighted. This article does not present actual approaches to creating the lifetime reading habit, since (as the author notes) such approaches already have been suggested in the literature of the field. Instead, the focus is on building the most favorable attitude toward promoting independent reading during the school day.

Sanacore, J. (1983). How the principal can promote free reading in the content areas. *Journal of Reading*, 27, 229-233.

Promotes the lifetime reading habit through recreational or free reading across the curriculum. After defining recreational reading, the author highlights the administrator's role in supporting this innovation by building it into the students' yearlong schedules. In this plan, students experience recreational reading for five-week blocks of time in each content area. In addition to this ambitious approach, the author suggests low-key strategies, such as seeking a department on a voluntary basis or incorporating semifree reading into subject-matter lessons. Finally, inservice education is encouraged as a strategy for strengthening recreational reading efforts.

Sanacore, J. (1988). Schoolwide independent reading: The principal can help. *Journal of Reading*, 31, 346-353.

Discusses the issue of using school time for independent reading. Among the points made are independent reading helps students expand reading interests, build prior knowledge, apply skills to reading material, and, most important, develop the lifetime reading habit. To accomplish these outcomes, four guidelines are suggested: providing pertinent staff development, using independent reading to promote creative reading, supporting schoolwide efforts, and making realistic modifications.

Sanacore, J. (1982). Speaking out: Wanted: Effective reading leaders. *The Clearing House*, 55, 292.

Argues in favor of appointing reading leaders who possess knowledge of reading. In addition, practical guidelines for hiring effective, knowledgeable reading leaders are presented, such as forming an advisory committee; having the committee review resumes to identify candidates who show potential for reading leadership; having the committee interview candidates through a process of asking probing questions; and having the interviewers visit the schools in which the candidates are currently employed to determine the extent to which knowledge of reading has been applied. The author also recommends that prospective reading leaders possess other important characteristics, for example, a genuine liking for students and teachers.

Sanacore, J. (1982). Transferring the PQ4R study procedure: Administrative concerns. The Clearing House, 55, 234-236.

Describes the steps that comprise the PQ4R procedure and discusses administrative approaches to supporting the continuous use of this study technique. These approaches include demonstrating a need for PQ4R during meetings, conducting effective inservice education concerning this technique, and guiding the staff to include this study procedure in content area lessons. The author also suggests that the building principal encourage the use of other reading-study strategies.

Sandel, L. (1985). Organizing the volunteer tutor program. In S.J. Rauch & J. Sanacore (Eds.). *Handbook for the volunteer tutor* (2nd Ed.) (pp. 107-122). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Presents procedures and forms that help to organize and administer a volunteer tutor program. Among the forms are the Volunteer Tutor Application, the Student Application and Interview, the Assignment Sheet, the Lesson Plan, and the Contact Sheet. The author also describes aspects of Literacy Volunteers of Long Island, and she focuses on the need for this program, its one-to-one tutoring service, its tutor training workshop, and its behind-the-scenes structure. Also included are a section entitled "Gleanings from Research" and an extensive bibliography.

Shannon, P. (1989). The struggle for control of literacy lessons. *Language Arts*, 66, 625-634.

Alerts administrators and teachers to the politics of literacy education. According to the author, teacher behavior related to reading instruction is driven by basal readers, which are substantially controlled by publishing companies. This problem is linked to both skills-based and interactionist basals. The whole language philosophy, however, provides teachers and students with more cooperative control over their instructional lessons. The author concludes that for whole language to be fully realized, educators must examine the social, political, and historical foundations of present practices so that the questionable motives of basal proponents are exposed.

Wepner, S.B., Feeley, J.T., & Strickland, D.S. (Eds.) (1988).
The administration and supervision of reading programs.
New York: Teachers College Press.

Provides information concerning links between reading and writing, uses of computers in reading programs, and other up-to-date areas. Ideas are presented in a practical, readable fashion, and leadership guidelines are suggested for both elementary and secondary school settings. This source is also useful for preservice and inservice education.